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# Timber vs. Steel Bridge Superstructure Construction: A Simplified Structural, Economic and Environmental Analysis

Jack Dugdale

*UVM College of Engineering and Mathematical Sciences, [jdugdale@uvm.edu](mailto:jdugdale@uvm.edu)*

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# Timber vs. Steel Bridge Superstructure Construction

## A Simplified Structural, Economic and Environmental Analysis

Jack Dugdale

Advised by Eric M. Hernandez, PhD

## **Acknowledgements**

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## **Abstract**

For thousands of years, bridges were constructed primarily of timber. Then, in 1779, the first cast iron bridge was built, followed by the first primarily steel bridge in 1874. By the 20<sup>th</sup> century, wood had fallen completely out of favor for all major infrastructure projects. This thesis examined if such a wholesale shift to steel is still sustainable today given increased concerns about social and environmental impacts, particularly in light of modern advances in engineered wood products. Focusing on single span highway bridges in Vermont, structural models were created to determine appropriate section sizes for functionally equivalent steel and glued laminated timber sections. Methods for performing economic and embodied energy analyses were then proposed. While final conclusions regarding the relative benefits of steel and timber were not reached, it is believed that this three-pronged approach will ultimately allow for a nuanced and multi-faceted view of the benefits and costs associated with each material, allowing for more informed infrastructure planning.

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# **1. Introduction**

## **1.1. History**

Bridges have been a critical part of civilization for as long as organized settlements have existed. Throughout the world, local cultures adapted whatever natural resources were available to construct crossings, using rope, stone and even earth in the form of bricks. Historically, however, timber was perhaps the most widely used material. The reasons for this are numerous. Firstly, outside of deserts, wood is a common and easily obtained material in most regions of the world. Secondly, it is easily worked, even with crude tools and little skill is required to achieve tolerable results, as opposed to stone or masonry. Thirdly, even without tools, a suitable, if rudimentary, bridge may be constructed by simply laying fallen logs across an obstacle. It is not surprising, therefore, that wood was frequently the material of choice for bridges. For many thousands of years this remained true. Technology improved, styles and techniques changed and advances in analysis were made, but the fundamental building blocks of wood and stone remained more or less constant.

This all changed with the coming of the Industrial Revolution and the widespread use of iron. Iron was certainly not a new discovery, having been used by the Greeks, Romans and many others. However, due to the difficulty in smelting large quantities of ore using charcoal, it had typically only been used for small objects such as pots, tools, weapons and armor. Not until the early 1700's was an efficient process for smelting iron ore using coal and later coke developed. The lower cost and higher energy density of coal when compared to charcoal allowed for cheaper mass production of cast iron. This sudden increase in supply, and associated decrease in cost, permitted the first cast iron bridge to be constructed in 1779 in Coalbrookdale, England. Subsequent advances in metallurgy resulted in the Bessemer Process, which led to the widespread development of the steel industry and the construction of the first all steel bridge in 1874 over the Mississippi River at St. Louis (Kirby et al., 1990). By the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the widespread availability of high quality steel meant that timber had fallen completely out of favor as a structural material for use in bridges. To this day, steel remains a dominant construction material. Partly as a result, relatively little research has been performed regarding the advantages and disadvantages of wood as a construction material, resulting in a dearth of comprehensive information.

## 1.2. Reasoning

There are many very compelling reasons to utilize steel in both bridge and building construction. As an engineered product, it has carefully controlled and well known properties that the designer or engineer can use with a reasonably high degree of confidence. It is widely available in a multitude of sizes and shapes. Furthermore, steel is very strong in both tension and compression, which makes it highly adaptable for various uses. These advantages are well known and are some of the many reasons that steel has come to dominate the construction industry for large structures

However, there are also several notable disadvantages to using steel as well. First, it is comparatively heavy, having a density of 490 lbs/ft<sup>3</sup> (pcf) vs 140 to 150 pcf for concrete and about 35 pcf for softwood timber. For comparison, water weighs 62.4 pcf. This weight means that transportation costs and associated vehicle emissions may be significant. Second, while steel itself is not uncommon, specialized tools are required in order to cut, handle, erect and connect steel members. This can slow construction and increase project costs. Third, though steel is economically inexpensive, it can have significant environmental impacts due to high energy requirements in the mining and manufacturing processes. Finally, though it can be a durable material, steel can also experience significant corrosion when exposed to road salt, either alone or in combination with vehicle emissions. This scenario is quite common in northern regions of the United States (Houska, 2007).

Timber, in contrast to steel, is a naturally occurring material. There is thus significant variation between individual wood specimens, even from within the same tree. Knots and other defects can greatly alter the strength characteristics of the member. Additionally, the sizes of trees themselves have historically limited what could be constructed of wood. Unlike steel, which can be fabricated in any size desired, traditional timber products are directly limited by the size of the source tree. With the exhaustion of the larger old growth forests, this has restricted the commercial use of wood to dimensional lumber, the ubiquitous 2x4's and 2x6's used in home construction. While useful for many things, these small sizes are wholly unsuited to bridge construction.

However, modern technology offers a solution to both of the aforementioned issues in the form of glued laminated timber, or glulams. These are engineered wood products made by

laminating together individual pieces of dimensional lumber using heat, pressure and glue to create large beams, as shown below in Figure 1. Typically, preservatives are also applied during the manufacturing stage to inhibit rot and decay.



**Figure 1: Example of a glulam beam prior to finishing (Source: <http://www.woodsfieldgroup.com/img/img-what.jpg>)**

Much like steel or concrete beams, glulam members can be made in practically any size desired, although longer lengths can present transportation and handling difficulties. Furthermore, the lamination process helps to minimize the impact of defects in individual pieces of wood. While a knot in a single 2x4 might prove critical when the member is stressed, by sandwiching that same member in amongst several other pieces of wood, the impact of that defect is minimized. As a result, glulams tend to be more dimensionally stable and have more consistent structural properties than sawn timber.



Given the adaptability of glulams, it is not surprising that they have begun to be used to construct bridges. These are typically short span bridges designed for pedestrians or light vehicular traffic, as depicted in Figure 2.



**Figure 2: Glulam pedestrian bridge (Source: [http://www.custompark.com/\\_images/products/bridges/glulam-beam-bridge-03.jpg](http://www.custompark.com/_images/products/bridges/glulam-beam-bridge-03.jpg))**

However, larger designs capable of supporting normal vehicular traffic have also been constructed. As described by the American Institute for Timber Construction, an industry trade group, “[w]ood’s ability to absorb impact forces created by traffic and its natural resistance to chemicals, such as those used for de-icing roadways, make it ideal for these installations” (AITC, 2007).

In addition to its structural properties, glued laminated timber also has the potential to have reduced environmental impacts in comparison to steel. Steel, for all of its beneficial

properties, is energy intensive to manufacture. Even if recycled material is used (which it often is in developed countries), it still must be melted at high temperatures in order to be formed into shapes. Glulams, on the other hand, while certainly requiring more energy to produce than dimensional lumber, do not need to be subjected to processes which are as energy intensive as used in steel manufacturing. Additionally, the source material itself, wood, is renewable, unlike iron, of which there is a finite amount. The environmental impacts of the harvesting process itself depend on the techniques used, some of which are more harmful than others, but the trend in recent years has been to promote more sustainable forestry practices. Organizations such as the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) have been created to certify forests as being sustainably managed.

While the above description speaks to the potential benefits of using glulams, relatively little research has been conducted to date specifically comparing timber and steel construction, particularly as it applies to bridges. There is therefore little concrete evidence as to whether or not either steel or glulam timber offers any concrete advantage over the other material. This paper attempts to partially address that gap.

### **1.3. Necessity and Hypothesis**

According to an AP analysis of the 607,380 bridges included in the 2013 National Bridge Inventory, there are 65,505 structurally deficient bridges in the U.S. There are also 20,808 bridges which are fracture critical, meaning that the failure of a single member can result in complete collapse. A total of 7,795 bridges were labelled as being both structurally deficient and fracture critical. (AP, 2013) This has led the American Society of Civil Engineers to give the nation's bridges an overall grade of a C+ in its latest Report Card for America's Infrastructure. (ASCE, 2013)

There is clearly a need, therefore, for significant infrastructure improvements and the construction of numerous new bridges in the coming years. Given this, as well as the natural desire of state and federal agencies to save money wherever possible, the importance of prompt replacement of deficient bridges and the growing interest in green building practices, it would be wise to consider all available construction materials for use in such projects. However, while steel and concrete are well studied, timber has been little examined as a possible structural

material for bridges. The current focus on the state of America's transportation network offers an opportune time to correct that oversight so that engineers and policymakers have accurate information on which to base decisions.

The goal of this thesis is not to demonstrate that wood is a viable structural material in general. The tens of thousands of wood frame buildings built every year, the historic post and beam structures and the miraculous engineering feats of ancient cultures leaves no doubt that it can be used quite effectively. Nor is the purpose even to show that bridges specifically can be constructed from wood. Many thousands of sophisticated bridges were made of wood in the past, and hundreds still exist to this day, spanning hundreds of feet and carrying modern traffic loads. Instead, this thesis intends to examine whether, using modern engineered wood products, a timber bridge can be *competitive* with a more typical steel girder bridge and offer a viable alternative for the construction of new infrastructure. It is theorized that timber is in fact a practical alternative to steel for bridge superstructures when all relevant factors are considered. This thesis will attempt to compare the relative merits of steel and timber in three important categories: structural properties, economic cost and environmental impact. Conclusions will then be drawn regarding in which situations, if any, wood may be an appropriate material to utilize. It is anticipated that timber will offer the most benefits, both economic and environmental, in short bridges of less than 50 feet in length. For longer spans, it is expected that the greater absolute strength of steel will permit the construction of more efficient structures with less material, reducing both cost and environmental impact.

## **2. Literature Review**

A tremendous amount has been written about the merits and properties of steel design, as well as its economic and environmental impact. There is much less literature of note in regards to wood design in general or of bridges in particular. The most comprehensive analysis thus far was performed by the U.S. Forest Service in 1990 and primarily focuses on lightly travelled short spans used in National Parks. Furthermore, the only environmental comparisons found between wood and steel focus primarily on residential and commercial structures, as opposed to infrastructure, and vary widely in their conclusions. Therefore, a wide variety of resources were required in order to create a representative and useful knowledge base.

The structural properties of steel (AISC, 2013) and timber (NDS, 2015) have both been extensively researched and tabulated. Multiple volumes list the properties of every conceivable material and section type which one might encounter. In general, structural steel is available with yield strengths of 36 or 50 ksi (AISC, 2013). Wood, while more variable, depending on both the species and the loading orientation, typically has a design bending strength between 1.5 and 2.5 ksi (NDS, 2015).

In addition to extensive data on material properties, many specifications and codes have been developed governing the construction standards for steel bridges (FHWA, 2012) and bridges in general (AASHTO, 2012). There are fewer standards available specifically for wood bridges, but some useful information can be obtained from the experiences of the U.S. Forest Service (USFS, 1990).

An economic analysis is naturally dependent on site specific conditions. Depending on the proximity of the construction site to mills, factories, access points and other features, costs can vary significantly. Labor costs also vary by region. For this reason, it will be assumed that the bridges discussed in this study will be constructed in the vicinity of Burlington, Vermont. Price estimation will then be based primarily on the five year averaged price list published by the Vermont Agency of Transportation (VTrans). The figures found in this table provide a rough guide to construction costs based on the amount of material needed for each component, allowing the initial cost of the project to be calculated. These values, however, are based on data from projects of various sizes scattered throughout the state. Thus, while they provide a useful approximation, actual costs will likely vary significantly depending on site specific conditions.

The final element of analysis focuses on the relative environmental impact of each material choice. There are multiple ways in which this can be measured, but for this analysis, the *embodied energy* needed to produce each material will be the primary metric. (For further detail on this, please see the methodology section.) A great deal of research has been done on this subject, covering multiple materials and uses in many countries. Due to the varying inputs (distance between resource and mill, amount of recycling, energy sources used for processing, type of transportation, boundaries of study, etc.), the calculated values for each material can vary tremendously, sometimes by orders of magnitude. The data varies both between countries and

regions as well as between researchers in the same country. Nonetheless, this has only encouraged further study, so there is a plethora of available information on the subject.

The single most comprehensive data set created to date, offering information on most common structural materials, is the *Inventory of Carbon and Energy* (Hammond and Jones, 2011), which contains extensive and well documented numbers for every material. Unfortunately, the study focused primarily on the UK and EU, so the data, particularly for timber, may not be fully applicable to an American analysis. Further information is available from The United Kingdom (Harris, 1999), India (Reddy and Jagadish, 2003), New Zealand (Buchanan and Honey, 2003; Alcorn and Baird, 1996) and the United States (Griffin et al., 2010). On the whole, however, the majority of papers seem to come out of Europe and New Zealand, perhaps due to more restrictive carbon emission limits. In general, all sources agree that steel has a higher embodied energy (typically around 20 MJ/kg) than wood (closer to 10 MJ/kg).

In addition to raw data focusing solely on the embodied energy of individual materials, several studies comparing materials have been conducted, primarily focusing on residential and commercial buildings. The most relevant of these is perhaps one which focuses on French single family homes built with locally sourced material versus similar homes built with concrete (Morel et al., 2010). The results of that study indicated that total energy consumption was reduced by 215% when locally sourced materials were used.

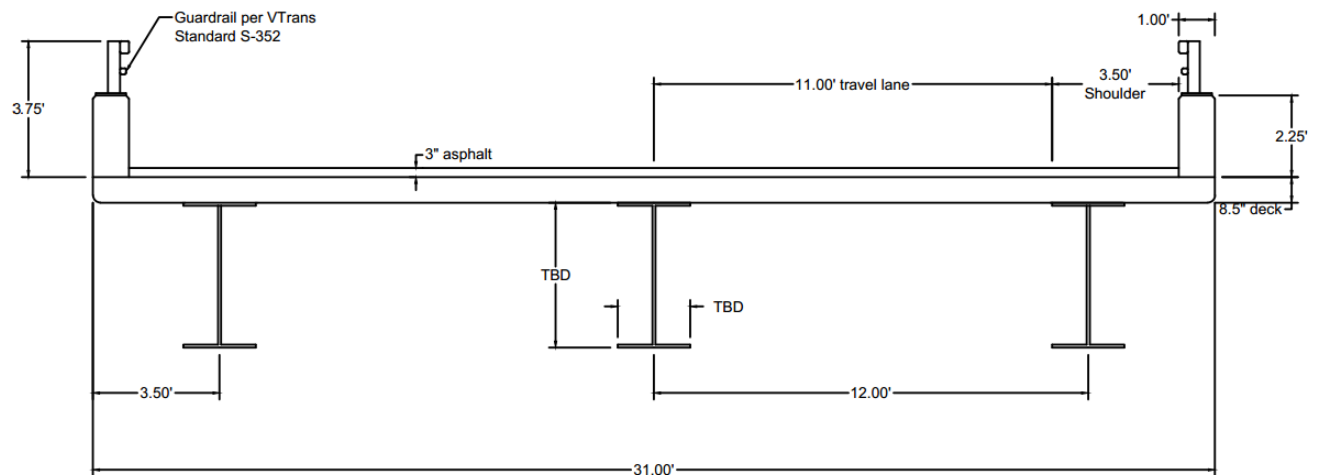
### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Bridge Design and Analysis**

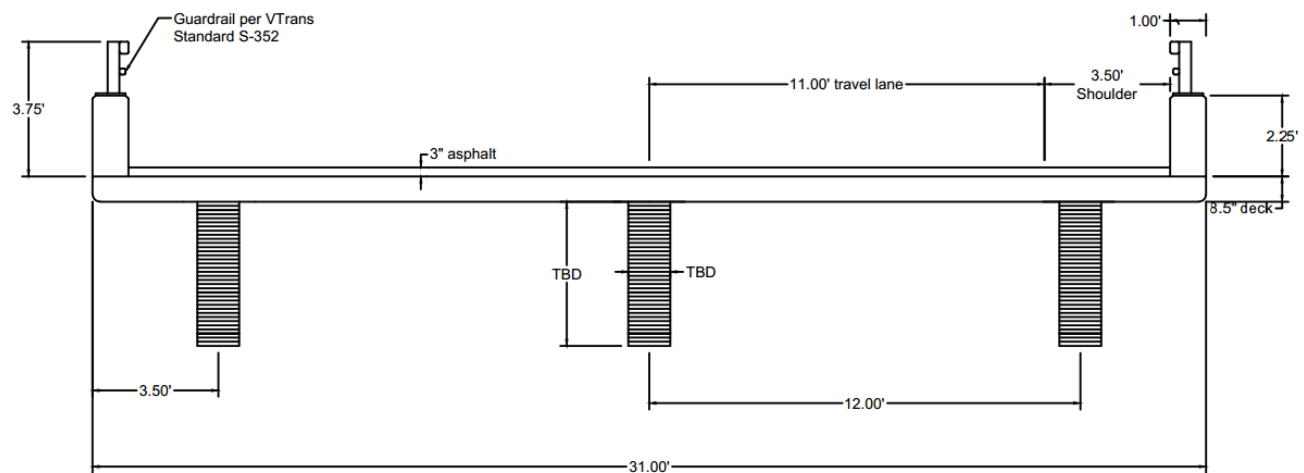
In order to effectively compare the benefits of steel and timber bridge superstructure construction, it was first necessary to develop structurally equivalent bridges which could then be analyzed from an economic and environmental perspective. As the goal of this thesis was not to provide detailed construction guidelines for timber bridges, but rather a relative comparison between timber and steel, it was decided that a series of hypothetical structures would be modeled. By using conjectural designs, rather than site specific plans, a more general result could be provided. This approach also served to significantly reduce the number of potential variables, thus restricting the following analyses to only the most pertinent information. Additionally, it should be noted that only the superstructure elements, meaning the deck and

primary supporting girders, were considered in this and subsequent analyses. Abutments were not examined, nor were secondary members beneath the deck, such as transverse stiffeners.

The basic design chosen as a template was a simply supported one span bridge of varying length supported by three main girders. The bridge was designed for moderate vehicular traffic and no pedestrian traffic, such as might be expected on a rural state highway. Overall width was 31 feet, giving two 11 foot travel lanes and two 3.5 foot shoulders. The center lines of the exterior girders were placed 3.5 feet from the edge of the bridge deck, resulting in a center to center beam spacing of 12 feet. Following the general practice of the Vermont Agency of Transportation, a cast in place concrete deck 8.5 inches thick was placed on top of the support girders. It was assumed for all calculations that the deck and girders experienced full composite action. A three inch thick asphalt wearing surface was assumed to be placed on top of the deck. No sidewalks were supplied, but TL-4 crash rated guardrails conforming to VTrans Standard S-352 were positioned along the deck edges. Standard plans for these guardrails have been included in Appendix D. Schematics showing the cross section of the design bridge are provided in Figures 3a and 3b.



**Figure 3a: Cross section of the design bridge with steel girders**



**Figure 3b: Cross section of the design bridge with glulam girders**

To account for a wide variety of potential bridge configurations, the design bridge was modeled in SAP2000 for nine different span lengths ranging from 20 to 100 feet, in 10 foot increments. Only the concrete deck and steel or wood girders were included as model elements. The asphalt pavement layer and guardrail were both accounted for in the form of applied dead loads. The steel sections were assumed to be made from A992 steel while the timber beams were designed using 26F-1.9E southern pine glulams. The concrete was taken to have a compressive strength of  $f'_c = 4000$  psi. The steel and concrete sections utilized built-in properties already defined in SAP2000. However, in order to represent the glulam beams, a new material property needed to be created using the “Define” menu in the SAP workspace. This was done by idealizing the timber as an orthotropic material, meaning it has three principle, mutually perpendicular directions along which its properties varied. For wood, these are the longitudinal (parallel to the grain), tangential and radial directions. The values of the various elastic properties along these directions were obtained from a table in the 1990 Forest Service publication *Timber Bridges: Design, Construction and Maintenance* which provided ratios between the different properties for various wood species. These values were also checked against those provided in the 2010 Forest Products Laboratory *Wood Handbook*. The ratios given for loblolly pine, which is one of the species comprising the southern pine species group, were used to represent southern pine in general. According to the North Carolina State University Tree Improvement Program,

“[l]oblolly pine is the most commercially important tree species in the southeastern United States, responsible for the majority of the harvested timber.” It is therefore believed that the strength values used can be considered representative of southern pine in general. The material properties for steel, concrete and glulam which were used in the models are provided in Tables 1, 2 and 3, below.

**Table 1: Material Properties of Steel in SAP2000 Model**

Property Description	SAP2000 Notation	Value
Modulus of Elasticity (E)	E	29000 ksi
Poisson's Ratio ( $\nu$ )	U	.3
Thermal Expansion Coefficient	A	$6.5E-6 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$
Shear Modulus (G)	G	11153.846 ksi
Minimum Yield Stress ( $F_y$ )	Fy	50 ksi
Minimum Tensile Stress ( $F_u$ )	Fu	65 ksi
Effective Yield Stress ( $F_{ye}$ )	Fye	55 ksi
Effective Tensile Stress ( $F_{ue}$ )	Fue	71.5 ksi
Unit Weight	Weight per Unit Volume	490 pcf
Mass Density	Mass per unit Volume	15.2297 slugs/ft <sup>3</sup>

**Table 2: Material Properties of Concrete in SAP2000 Model**

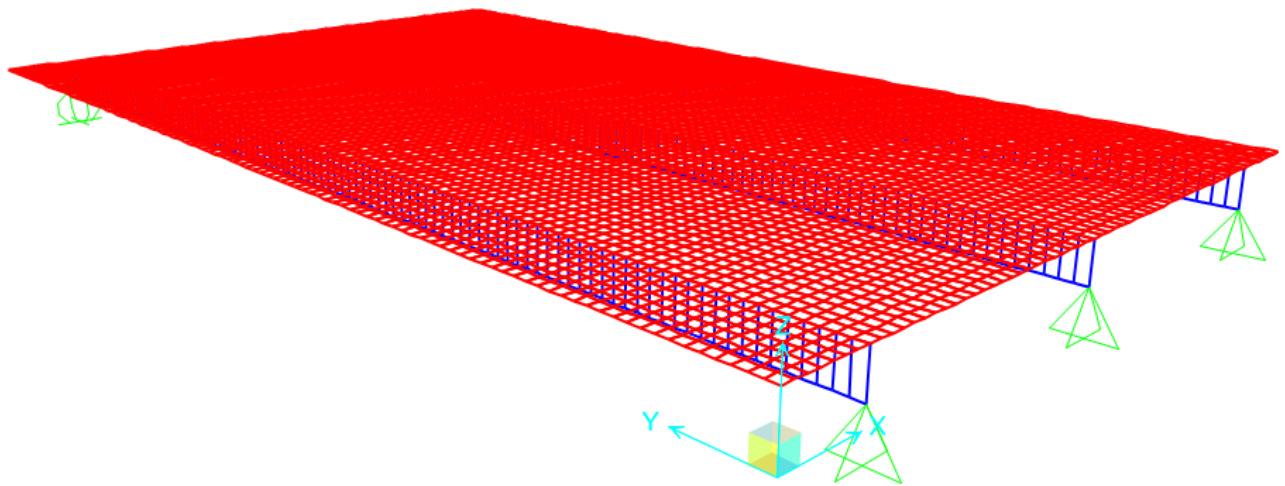
Property Description	SAP2000 Notation	Value
Modulus of Elasticity (E)	E	3604.9965 ksi
Poisson's Ratio ( $\nu$ )	U	.2
Thermal Expansion Coefficient	A	$5.5E-6 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$
Shear Modulus (G)	G	1502.0819 ksi
Specified Compressive Strength ( $f'_c$ )	$f'_c$	4 ksi
Unit Weight	Weight per Unit Volume	150 pcf
Mass Density	Mass per unit Volume	4.6621 slugs/ft <sup>3</sup>

**Table 3: Material Properties of Southern Pine Glulam in SAP2000 Model**

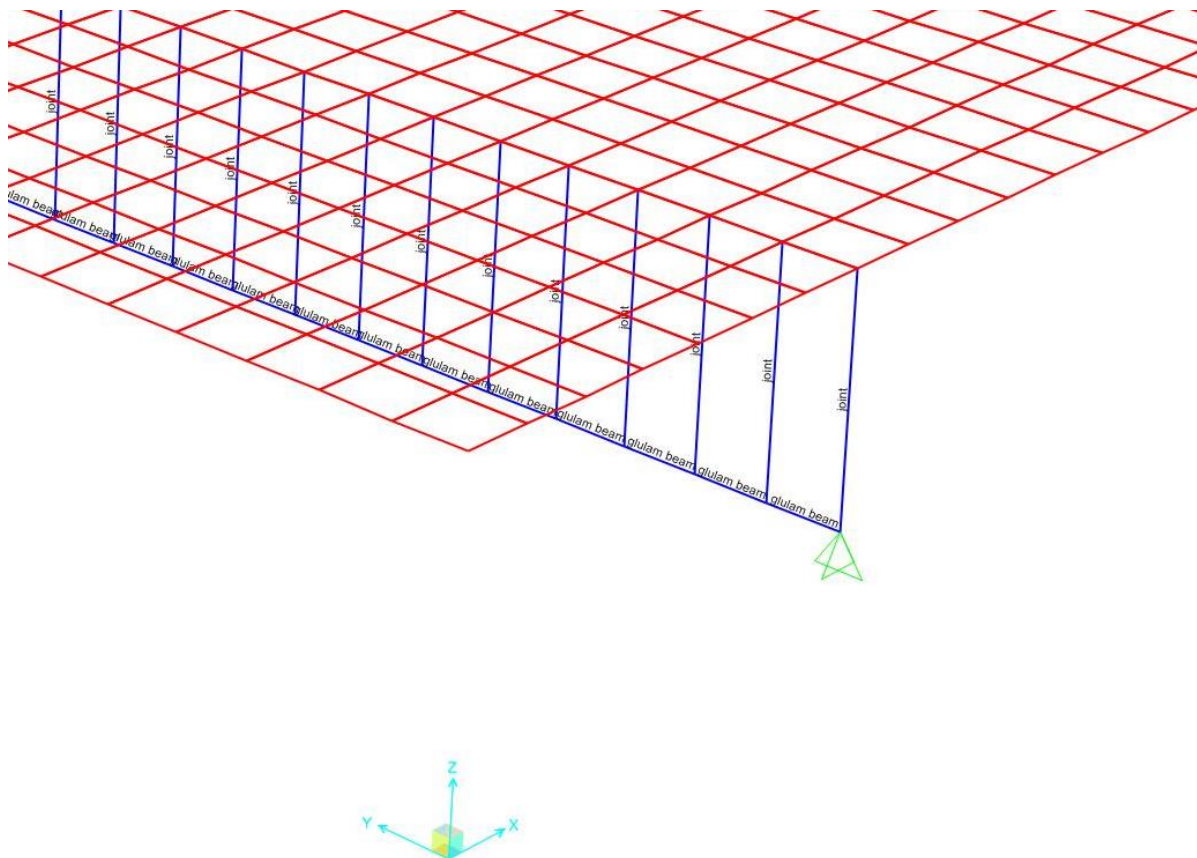
Property Description	SAP2000 Notation	Value
Longitudinal Modulus of Elasticity ( $E_L$ )	E1	1900 ksi
Tangential Modulus of Elasticity ( $E_T$ )	E2	214.7 ksi
Radial Modulus of Elasticity ( $E_R$ )	E3	150.1 ksi
Longitudinal-Radial Poisson's Ratio ( $\nu_{LR}$ )	U12	.33
Longitudinal-Tangential Poisson's Ratio ( $\nu_{LT}$ )	U13	.29
Radial-Tangential Poisson's Ratio ( $\nu_{RT}$ )	U23	.38
Longitudinal Thermal Expansion Coefficient	A1	$2.0E-6 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$
Tangential Thermal Expansion Coefficient	A2	$1.45E-5 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$
Radial Thermal Expansion Coefficient	A3	$1.92E-5 \text{ } ^\circ\text{F}^{-1}$
Longitudinal-Tangential Shear Modulus ( $G_{LT}$ )	G12	153.9 ksi
Longitudinal-Radial Shear Modulus ( $G_{LR}$ )	G13	153.9 ksi
Radial-Tangential Shear Modulus ( $G_{RT}$ )	G23	24.7 ksi
Unit Weight	Weight per Unit Volume	36 pcf
Mass Density	Mass per unit Volume	1.1189 slugs/ft <sup>3</sup>



The deck was modeled as a thin shell having a thickness of 8.5 inches, divided into a mesh consisting of elements six inches square. The mesh was placed at the centroid of the deck. The girders were modeled using frame elements. In order to match the resolution of the deck mesh, each girder actually consisted of a series of six-inch long segments. Vertically, these segments were placed at the centroid of the girder. To connect the girder to the deck and model the composite behavior of the bridge, fictitious joints were used. These were located every six inches along the length of the girder, connecting the nodes of the beam elements with the nodes of the shell representing the deck. The mass and weight of these elements were set to zero, while the moment of inertia was multiplied by a factor of 1000 to increase their stiffness. Doing this ensured that the forces developed in the concrete deck were fully transferred to the supporting girders. Figure 4 shows an example of the full model, while Figure 5 is a detail of one of the SAP models showing the interaction between the deck, shell and girder elements.



**Figure 4: Perspective view of bridge model in SAP2000**



**Figure 5: Detail of model showing the deck, girder and fictitious joints**

The design of the structural elements of the bridge, namely the girders, followed the requirements of the 2012 *AASHTO LRFD Bridge Design Specifications*. For the purposes of this analysis, only the Strength I limit state was considered. This limit state includes the effects of the live and dead load but does not consider wind. The live load on the bridge was determined using the HL-93 load specified in Section 3.6.1.2. This dictates that two different vehicular loads be analyzed. The first is the HS20-44 truck. This consists of a three axle truck, with the front axle carrying eight kips and the middle and rear axles each carrying 32 kips. The front and middle axles are separated by 14 feet, while the distance between the middle and rear axles is permitted to vary between 14 and 30 feet so as to produce the worst effect. The second design vehicle which must be analyzed is the design tandem. This is a vehicle with two axles separated by four feet longitudinally, with both axles supporting 25 kips. Both of these design vehicles are to be applied to the bridge concurrently with a uniform load equal to 640 lbs/ft longitudinally, which is

distributed across a 10 foot transverse width. These loads must be located on the bridge so as to produce the maximum possible effect.

In order to determine the design vehicle and longitudinal location which produced this effect, a series of MATLAB codes were developed. These were used to calculate the moment created in a simply supported beam by every possible position of both the design truck and the design tandem. The code may be found in Appendix A, while the results obtained are included below in Table 4. The governing load cases producing the maximum moment have been identified in bold.

**Table 4: Governing Load Cases**

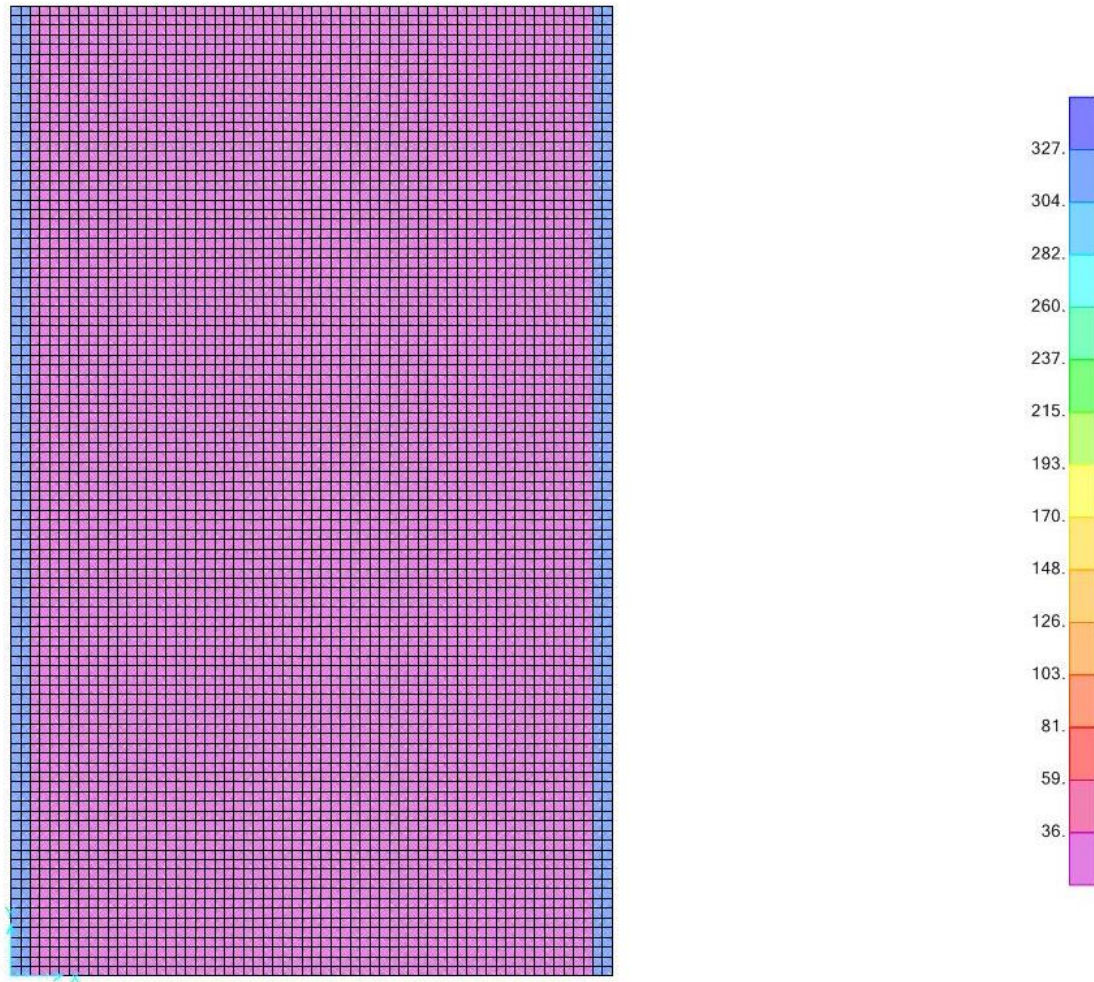
	HS20-44 Truck Load			Tandem Load	
Length (ft)	Moment (ft-kip)	Front Axle Position (ft)	Total Length (ft)	Moment (ft-kip)	Front Axle Position (ft)
20	160	24	28	<b>202.5</b>	<b>11</b>
30	282.1333	32.5	28	<b>326.66667</b>	<b>16</b>
40	449.8	36.33333	28	<b>451.25</b>	<b>21</b>
50	<b>627.84</b>	<b>41.33333</b>	<b>28</b>	576	26
60	<b>806.533</b>	<b>46.35</b>	<b>28</b>	700.83333	33
70	<b>985.6</b>	<b>51.33333</b>	<b>28</b>	825.71424	35.99167
80	<b>1164.9</b>	<b>56.33333</b>	<b>28</b>	950.625	41
90	<b>1344.209</b>	<b>61.35</b>	<b>28</b>	1075.55521	45.975
100	<b>1523.92</b>	<b>66.33333</b>	<b>28</b>	1200.5	51

It can be seen that for span lengths over 40 feet, the HS20-44 truck will be the governing vehicle.

Once the longitudinal positioning of the load was calculated, it was next necessary to position the loads transversely to create the largest impact. By observation, it was determined that the exterior girder would be subjected to the greatest force if both the lane load and design vehicle were placed as close to the edge of the deck as permitted by AASHTO. Similarly the center girder would experience the largest moment when two trucks and two lane loadings were placed as close to it as allowed. Thus, these were the loads applied to the SAP model. The lane loads were simply created using an area load of 64 psf across a 10 foot width and along the entire length of the bridge. The wheel loads from the design vehicles were slightly more complex. According to AASHTO, each axle of the design vehicle produces two wheel loads equal to half of the axle load. This wheel load is to be distributed over an area 20 inches wide (transversely)

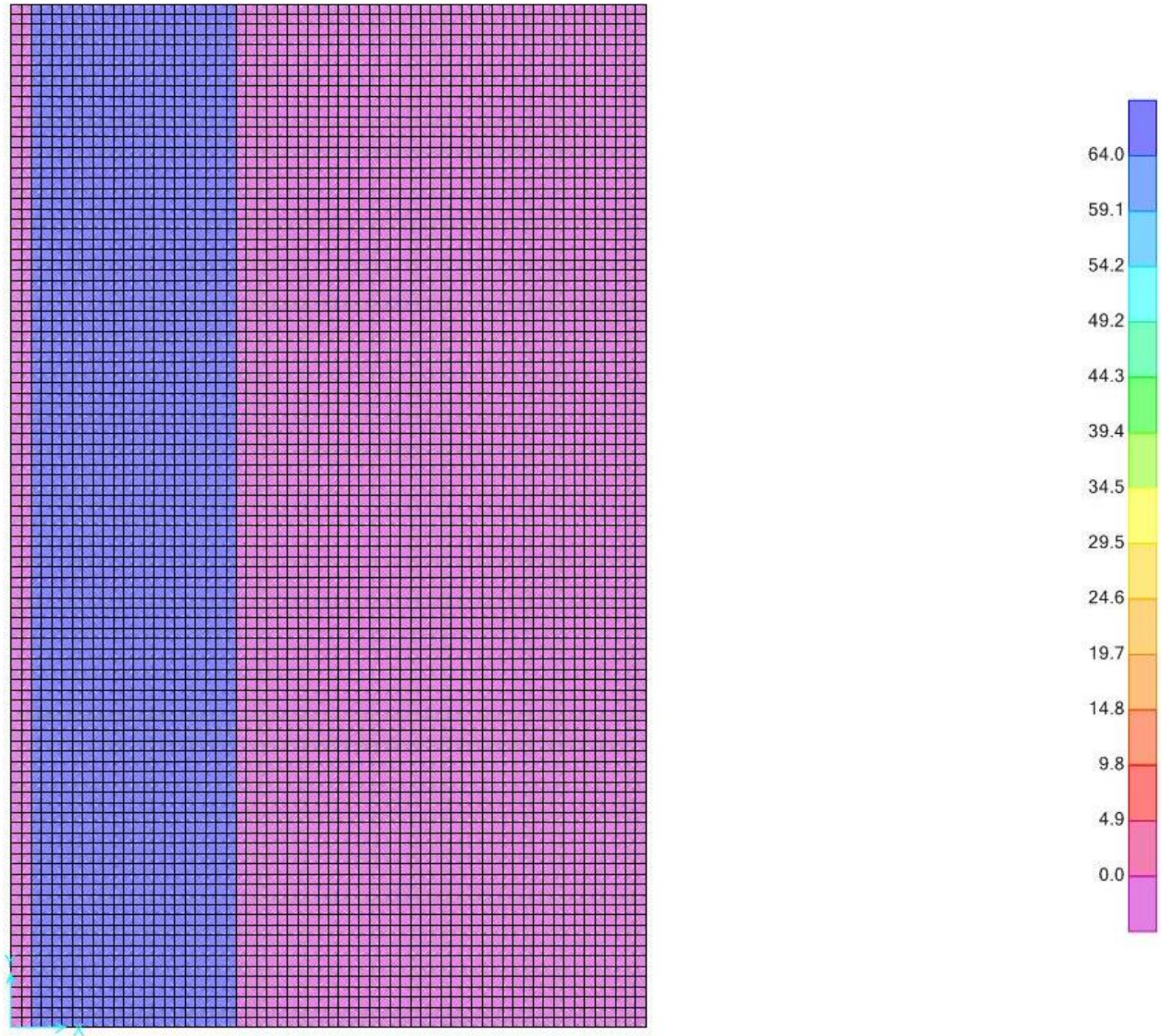
and 10 inches long (longitudinally) to represent the contact area of the tires (200 square inches). However, due to the six inch grid spacing adopted for the bridge deck, it proved impossible to precisely meet that specification. Instead, the wheel loads were applied to an area 18 inches wide and 12 inches long (216 square inches). It was felt that this slight discrepancy in contact area would result in negligible differences in results. Additionally, it should be noted that the AASHTO specified load is applied at the surface of the deck, while the load applied in the model was located at the deck centroid, 4.25 inches beneath the surface (if the thickness of the asphalt layer is neglected). If the applied surface load is transmitted through the deck along a 45 degree shear plane, than at centroid of the deck, it will actually be distributed over an area 28 inches wide and 18 inches long, or 504 square inches. The use of a 216 square inch wheel contact area may thus be conservative at the centroid of the deck.

For similar reasons regarding the grid spacing, the axle locations specified in Table 1 could not be exactly replicated in the model. The tabulated positions were thus rounded to the nearest half foot in the model, which has the effect of shifting the load centroid closer to the middle of the span by approximately two inches. However, this may compensate for a slight discrepancy between the code used to determine the axle locations and the AASHTO specifications. The MATLAB code used to calculate axle positions only accounted for the effect of the design truck or tandem. Due to computational limits, it was not feasible to account for the simultaneous application of the truck and lane loads as specified in AASHTO. It is known, however, that the maximum moment produced by the lane load would occur at midspan. This would have the effect of shifting the total resultant moment from both the truck and the lane load closer to the middle of the bridge, which is precisely what happens when the axle positions specified in Table 4 are rounded to the nearest six inches. It is unlikely that this slight shift in location fully compensates for the effect of superpositioning the loads. However, given the excess moment capacity observed in the results, it is not believed that this slight discrepancy would have resulted in the selection of different sections. Figures 6 – 10, provided below, show the various load patterns applied to the bridges. The particular example shown is the 50 foot model with the HS20-44 three axle truck loading, but the other arrangements were fundamentally similar in appearance.



**Figure 6: Dead load from railings (326.5 psf, purple) and asphalt (36.25 psf, blue)**



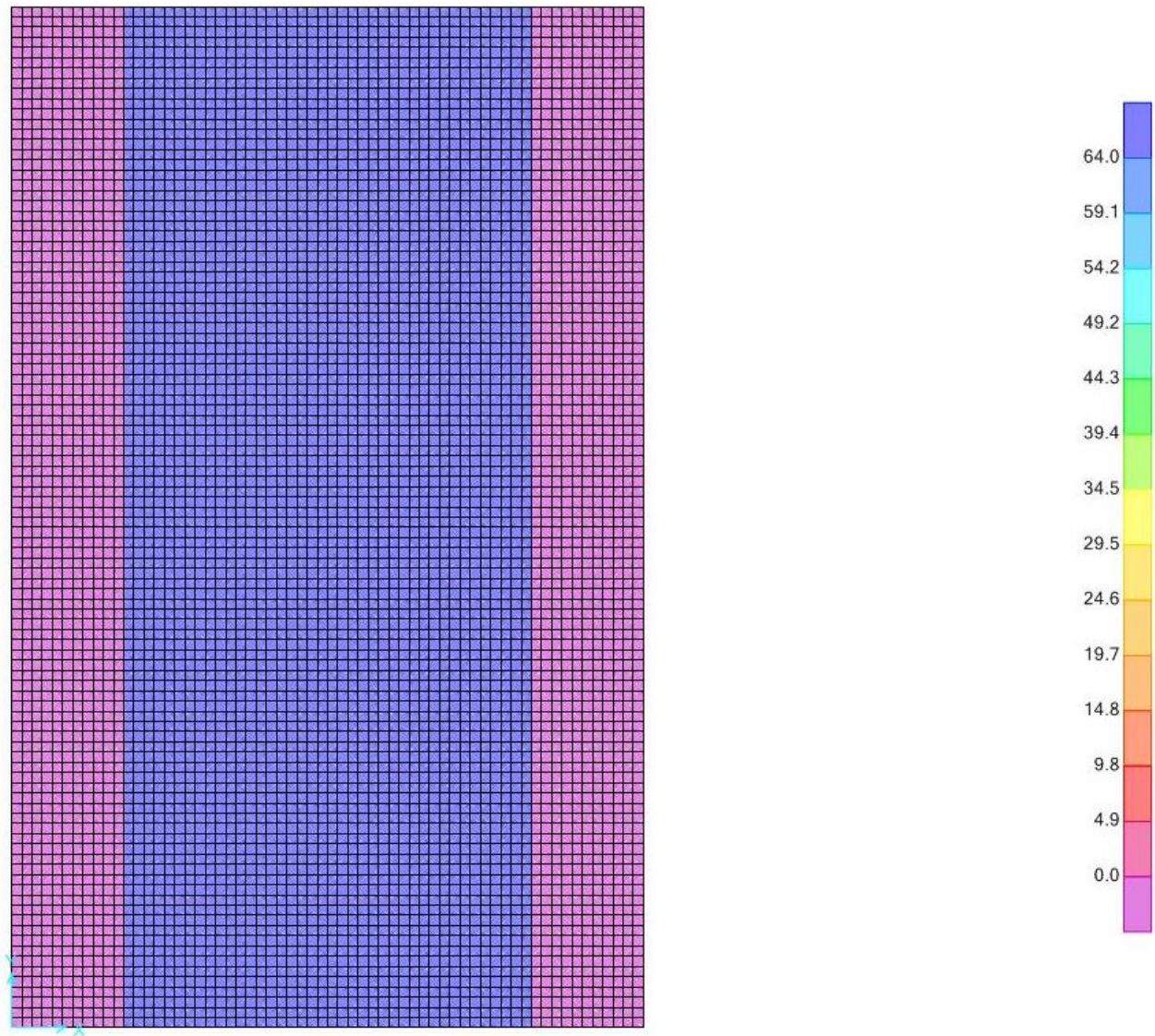


**Figure 7: Lane load over the exterior girder shown in blue, 64 psf**



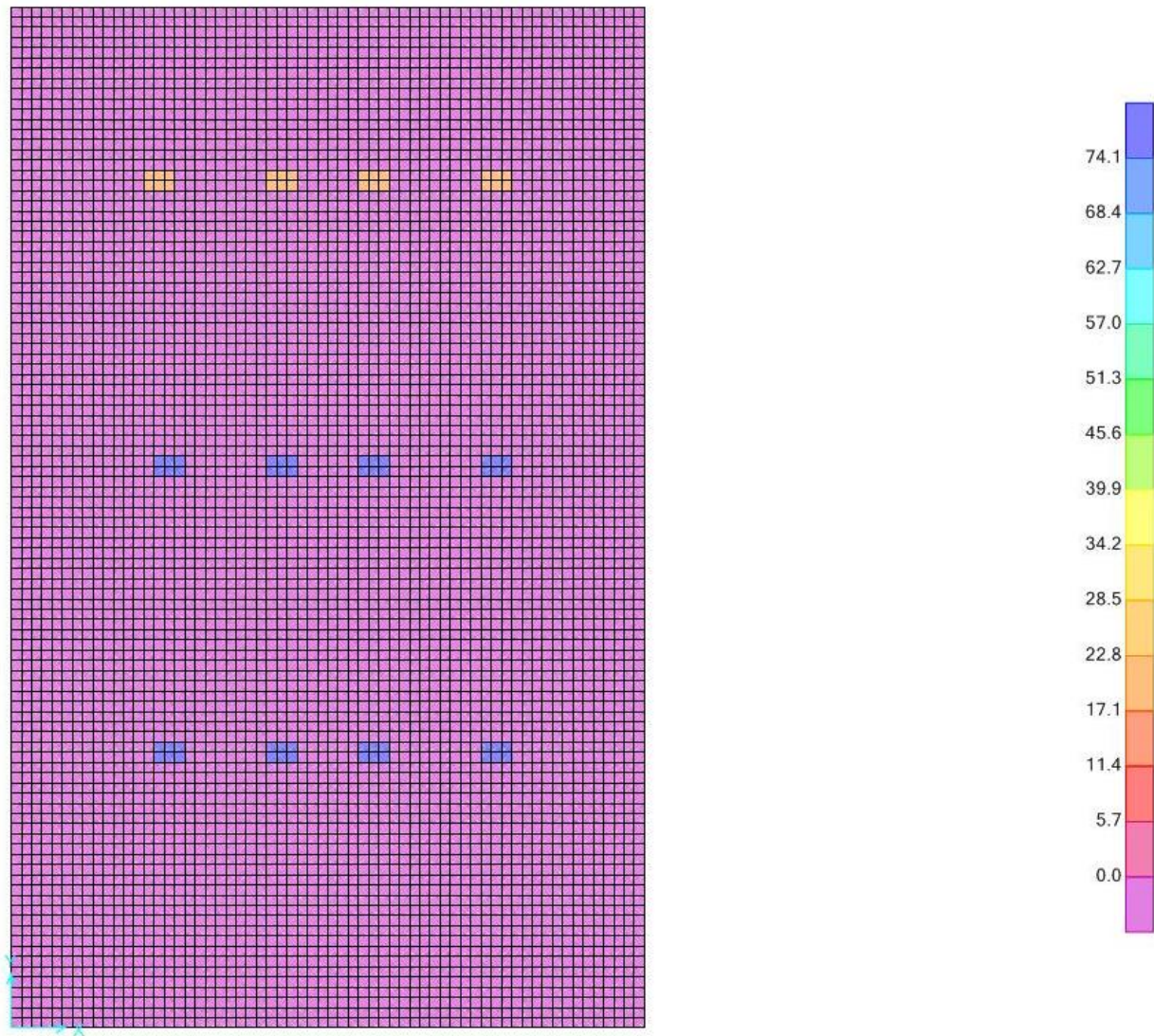
**Figure 8: HS20-44 loading over the exterior girder (18.519 psi for the front two wheel loads, shown in yellow, 74.074 psi for the remaining four, shown in blue)**





**Figure 9: Lane load over the center girder (64 psf, blue). In this case there are actually two 10 foot wide lane loads adjoining each other, as permitted by AASHTO to produce the maximum load effect**





**Figure 10: Loads from two HS20-44 trucks over the central girder (four 18.519 psi loads in yellow and eight 74.074 psi wheel loads in blue)**

The goal of creating the model described over the past several paragraphs was to determine the minimum beam size necessary, in both steel and timber, to support the design load. In order for a beam to be sufficient, it had to meet three requirements. First, it had to have a depth greater than or equal to  $1/30$  the span length, as specified by the optional span-to-depth ratios in AASHTO Table 2.5.2.6.3-1. This requirement applied only to the steel beams. Second, it had to have a moment capacity capable of supporting the applied load. Third, it had to have a

total deflection under the unfactored dead load alone of less than  $L/300$ . The first two requirements are specified or suggested by AASHTO. The third requirement was specific to this project, however. While AASHTO no longer specifies mandatory deflection limits for bridges, it does provide recommended values in the event that the owner or designer wishes to incorporate such restrictions. However, given that only the primary structural members were modeled in this project and the various transverse stiffeners were neglected, it was felt that the suggested deflection limit of  $L/800$  was too strict. A more permissive value of  $L/300$  was therefore adopted. The beam depth and deflection limits for each span length as adopted for this analysis are provided in Table 5.

**Table 5: Beam Depth and Deflection Limits**

Span (ft)	L/30 Beam Depth Limit (in.)	L/300 Deflection Limit (in.)
20	8	0.8
30	12	1.2
40	16	1.6
50	20	2
60	24	2.4
70	28	2.8
80	32	3.2
90	36	3.6
100	40	4

Based on the minimum beam depth required, as shown in Table 5, an initial trial section was selected for the model. This was taken from either the AISC Manual for steel sections or from the table *Section Properties of Structural Glued Laminated Timber* published by the AITC for wood beams. It is important to point out here that commercially available wide flange sections were used in the design of the bridges with a steel superstructure. These sections are optimized for use in buildings, where it is important to restrict the depth of members for architectural and practical reasons. In bridges, where such restrictions are not always necessary, more efficient and lighter weight members can be created through the design of plate girders. These tend to be deeper and narrower than commercial sections, resulting in a more efficient use of material. It was determined, however, that the design of plate girder sections was beyond the scope of a preliminary analysis such as this.

Another important point is that with both the steel and the wood superstructures, the same section was used for all three girders. This was based on Section 2.5.2.7.1 of the AASHTO LRFD specifications, which states that “[u]nless future widening is virtually inconceivable, the load carrying capacity of exterior beams shall not be less than the load carrying capacity of an interior beam” (AASHTO 2012). Because of this, only the most critical moment created in either the interior or the exterior girder was considered in design.

Once the model was run for the initial trial section, the dead load deflection could be immediately checked. If the value exceeded  $L/300$ , a new section was immediately tried. Once deflection was satisfied, the moment capacity of the section was checked. As previously stated, it was assumed that both the steel and timber beams, together with the concrete slab, exhibited fully composite behavior. The exact mechanisms used to achieve such behavior were not considered and are beyond the scope of this paper.

Composite action means that the steel or timber beam acts in concert with a portion of the deck slab to resist the applied moment. In essence, a section of the slab serves as an extended flange on the top of the beam, increasing the effective moment of inertia and the moment capacity of the section. The portion of the slab which acts in concert with the beam is referred to as the effective width. According to AASHTO Section 4.6.2.6, for the type of bridge design considered here, the effective width may be taken as the tributary area of the girder. That means that with girders spaced 12 feet on center and a deck overhang of 3.5 feet, the effective width for the exterior girders is 9.5 feet, while the interior girder has an effective width of 12 feet.

Based on that effective width, the trial section selected and the applied moment calculated by the SAP, it could be determined if the section was sufficient using the following sequence of equations, as adapted from *Steel Structures: Design and Behavior* by Charles G. Salmon and John E. Johnson:

$$A_{req} = \frac{M_u}{\phi_c F \left( \frac{d}{2} + t_s - \frac{a}{2} \right)} \quad (eq. 1)$$

$$T = A_{req} F \quad (eq. 2)$$

$$a = \frac{T}{.85f'_c b_E} \leq t_s \quad (eq. 3)$$

$$\phi M_n = T \left( \frac{d}{2} + t_s - \frac{a}{2} \right) \geq M_u \quad (eq. 4)$$

Where:

$A_{req}$  = area required to resist the moment (in.<sup>2</sup>)

$M_u$  = factored moment applied to trial section (kip – in.)

$\phi_c$  = resistance factor for composite action, .85 for steel  
– concrete, assumed .75 for wood – concrete

$F = F_y = F'_b$  = allowable bending stress (ksi)

$d$  = depth of trial section (in.)

$t_s$  = thickness of concrete slab (in.)

$a$  = depth of equivalent stress block (in.)

$T$  = tensile force produced in girder (kips)

$f'_c$  = compressive strength of concrete (ksi)

$b_E$  = effective width of slab (in.)

$M_n$  = nominal moment capacity (kip – in.)

In equation 1, there is a resistance factor  $\phi_c$  which is applied to account for uncertainty in the degree of composite action between the two materials and which differs from the normal bending resistance factor. AASHTO does not provide any guidance on the choice of this factor. For that reason, the value of .85 for a steel and concrete composite used in the Salmon and Johnson book was adopted for the purposes of designing the steel sections. However, no published value was found for wood and concrete composites. For that reason, a judgement was made that a value of .75 would be appropriate for the initial analysis performed here given the uncertain nature of wood as a material. However, this value was not based on any tests or other forms of data. For that reason, it is strongly advised that this resistance factor be adjusted as deemed appropriate based on physical tests and statistical analyses thereof.

The procedure when using the above equations is to pick a trial section, input the depth of the section and an assumed value for “a” which is smaller than the thickness of the slab into equation 1, use the resulting area to calculate T, and then use T and the effective width of the slab to determine the actual value of “a.” Provided that “a” is less than the slab thickness, the equations are valid and the nominal moment capacity of the section can be determined from equation 4. If this is greater than the applied moment, then the section chosen is satisfactory.

The formulas for calculating moment capacity depend on the maximum bending stress the material is capable of resisting. For steel that is a constant value, in this instance 50 ksi. However, that value varies for timber depending on a number of factors. This is shown below, as specified in Section 8.4.4 of AASHTO 2012 for glulam members.

$$F'_b = F_b C_{kf} C_m C_v C_d C_\lambda \quad (eq. 5)$$

$$C_v = \left( \left( \frac{12}{d} \right) \left( \frac{5.125}{b} \right) \left( \frac{21}{L} \right) \right)^a \leq 1.0 \quad (eq. 6)$$

Where:

$F'_b$  = adjusted bending stress (ksi)

$F_b$  = reference bending stress = 2.6 for 26F – 1.9E glulam (ksi)

$C_{kf} = \frac{2.5}{\phi}$  = format conversion factor

$\phi$  = .85 for bending

$C_m$  = wet service factor = .8 for bending in wet conditions

$C_v$  = volume factor

$C_d$  = deck factor = 1.0 except in special cases

$C_\lambda$  = time effect factor = .8 for Strength I limit state

$d$  = member depth (in.)

$b$  = member width (in.)

$L$  = span length (ft)

$a$  = .05 for southern pine and .1 otherwise

Using the relationships specified above, it was possible to determine the beam sizes necessary to support the design loads for each span length. This, in turn, would permit an economic and environmental analysis to be performed.

### **3.2 Economic**

The initial intent of this thesis was to perform an economic analysis comparing timber and steel. However, it was realized that the wide flange steel sections selected using the structural criteria were unlikely to be utilized in actual construction. It was therefore felt that any economic comparison based on these less efficient sections would be misleading. Additionally, without knowing site specific conditions, estimated costs for labor and other elements cannot be accurately predicted. As a result, no economic comparison was ultimately performed. However, the proposed methodology to do such an analysis has still been included.

Using the data obtained from the structural analysis regarding member sizes and quantities, initial construction costs for major components can be calculated based on the current five year averaged price list published by VTrans. The resulting figures only represent the value of the materials used for the superstructure construction. Specifically, they are based on the volume of concrete and pavement used for the deck, the length of railing utilized, the weight of rebar used for reinforcing, the weight of the structural steel sections and the volume of the glulam beams. The costs do not consider labor expenses, which would be a very significant component. However, it is expected that these would be similar for both the steel and timber bridge designs.

### **3.3 Environmental**

As with the economic analysis, it was felt that the use of steel sections intended for use in buildings would lead to misleading results. Therefore, the proposed methodology has been included, but no data has been included. In order to assess the environmental impact of the hypothetical bridge designs, the embodied energy of the materials used would need to be calculated. The basic concept of embodied energy is that all of the energy used to gather, manufacture and transport a material throughout its life is assigned to the material itself, as though it actually contains it. The larger the embodied energy, the less environmentally friendly

the material is. The values obtained through such an analysis obviously depend heavily on where the boundaries of the system contributing to the material are drawn. It is a common practice, and one which is suggested for this analysis, to examine the “cradle-to-gate” embodied energy. This includes all of the energy used to mine or harvest the material, everything used in its manufacture and processing and all of the transportation needed to reach its final destination. It does not incorporate anything that happens after it arrives at a job site, such as energy used in installation, building upkeep or end of life disposal. The largest omission resulting from the cradle-to-gate approach, at least in regards to bridges, is the energy related to end of life disposal. Steel can be easily recycled and reused for new products. At this time, however, there are few if any ways in which pressure treated timber can be salvaged. As a result, it is typically disposed of in landfills, resulting in significant economic and environmental costs.

For the designs described in this report, the material quantities estimated from the structural analysis would be used to determine the embodied energy associated with the structures. First, the material quantities obtained should be converted into kilograms. Then, utilizing the embodied energy coefficients from the *Inventory of Carbon and Energy Database*, the material weights can be used to calculate the amount of energy used to create and transport each component. This in turn would permit a direct environmental comparison between equivalently sized steel and timber bridges. For those wishing to perform their own comparisons, summary data from the *ICE Database* has been included in Appendix B and the list of references consulted by the authors of that report has been attached in Appendix C.

#### **4. Results**

Using the methodology outlined previously in section 3.1, the structural sections shown below in Table 3 were found to be satisfactory for the design load cases. In all cases, it was found that the moment created by the centrally placed loads was the critical force effect. It was also found that actual moment capacity never governed the section size chosen. Six of the nine steel girder sizes were chosen based on the minimum required beam depth. The remaining three were found based on the deflection criteria. It should once again be noted, however, that wide flange sections were used, rather than plate girders which could have been optimized to meet all three required criteria. A similar pattern was observed with the wood beams, where reductions in

section size and weight were restricted by deflection limits long before the nominal moment capacity of the members was reached. It is expected that this trend would have been even more pronounced had the  $L/800$  deflection limit been applied.

Based on the stated loads and selection criteria, the sections chosen for each of the nine span lengths have been included below. Table 6 shows the wide flange sections chosen for the girders along with the maximum moment and dead load deflection calculated in the SAP model. Table 7 provides the same information for wood beams, along with an additional column for the weight per foot. This is based on a density of 36 pcf, as indicated by the AITC southern pine glulam section properties table.

**Table 6: Steel Girder Sections**

Length (ft)	L/300 (in.)	Section	Moment (kip-in.)	DL Deflection (in.)
20	0.8	W8x13	223	0.24
30	1.2	W12x14	707	0.34
40	1.6	W16x31	2535	1.37
50	2	W21x57	5543	1.65
60	2.4	W24x76	8850	2.28
70	2.8	W30x108	11842	2.34
80	3.2	W33x130	18367	2.94
90	3.6	W36x170	24523	3.34
100	4	W40x211	31029	3.71

**Table 7: Wood Girder Sections**

Length (ft)	L/300 (in.)	Section (b x d, in.)	Weight (lbs/ft)	Moment (kip-in)	DL Deflection (in.)
20	0.8	3.5x8.25	7.2	68	0.24
30	1.2	3.5x12.375	10.8	327	0.37
40	1.6	5x22	27.5	1814	1.27
50	2	5x30.25	37.8	3670	1.69
60	2.4	6.75x33	55.7	5568	2.31
70	2.8	6.75x39.875	67.3	7291	2.76
80	3.2	8.5x44	93.5	11472	3.11
90	3.6	8.5x52.25	111.0	15242	3.27
100	4	10.5x55	144.4	19455	3.75



As noted previously, it was determined that performing a full economic and environmental analysis at this time would be inappropriate, given that steel sections optimized for use in buildings were used for the superstructure design. Cost estimates may be made on a unit basis using a variety of widely available but site specific data. They will thus not be discussed further. However, determining the environmental impact of either an individual material or an entire structure is a more difficult task. As discussed previously, it is suggested that a cradle-to-gate embodied energy analysis be performed. This requires the use of embodied energy coefficients. It was found that the *ICE Database* offered the most comprehensive and user friendly array of information on this topic. However, much of the source material for this database comes from Europe. Caution should thus be used when applying these values outside that region. Within this database are values for a number of different materials and conditions. After careful examination, it was determined that the following embodied energy coefficients would be most appropriate for the materials used in the bridge designs analyzed for this report. These values have been included in Table 8 below. The reader is encouraged, however, to make their own determination of appropriate values based on project specific criteria.

**Table 8: Suggested Embodied Energy Coefficients**

<b>Material</b>	<b>Embodied Energy Coefficient (MJ/kg)</b>	<b>Notes</b>
Steel Sections	21.50	EU recycled content
Glulam	12.00	Does not include energy if burnt
Concrete	.78	25-30 MPa strength
Rebar	17.40	EU recycled content
Asphalt Pavement	3.39	5% bitumen content

## 5. Conclusions

Based on SAP2000 models of 18 different bridges (nine span lengths modeled with two different girder materials), the size of steel and glulam sections required to support the AASHTO HL-93 live load were determined. It was found that glulam timber could be modeled in SAP with relative ease by defining it as an orthotropic material and determining the appropriate properties from sources such as the *Wood Handbook*. It was also determined that standard glulam section sizes can provide sufficient strength and moment capacity to meet the design requirements for short and medium span vehicular bridges.

Unfortunately, given the steel sections used during the structural modeling, it was deemed unrealistic to perform a full economic and environmental analysis at this time. As a result, the original question regarding the relative benefits of steel and timber superstructures could not be fully answered. However, a general methodology for answering these questions was proposed. Of particular importance is the selection of embodied energy coefficients. Several suggested values have been proposed, but future research should be conducted to determine more precise values.

In general, there is still significant need for future research. The results of this thesis do not provide any information to suggest that glulams should not be used for vehicular bridges. However, the relative environmental impacts and economic feasibility of steel and glulam bridges has not yet been determined. Further study is therefore required to assess these questions. It is suggested that future research focus on specific sites in order to compare bridges under real world conditions. Efforts should also be made to develop regional embodied energy coefficients and to develop standardized procedures for comparing the environmental impacts of different alternatives.

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```
function [ Max, Position ] = SSBmoving3point( L,p1,p2,p3,a12,a23,deltax )
% This function calculates the maximum moment produced by a series of up to
% three point loads moving across the length of a simply supported beam. It
% also returns the position of the first load (relative to the left end of
% the beam) at the time the maximum moment is produced. The position of the
% other two loads can be calculated based on the distance between the loads.
% If there are only two point loads applied, enter 0 for the value of "p3".
% Also, decreasing the value of "deltax" increases the accuracy but results
% in a slower calculation.
%
% CALL
% For a simply supported beam spanning distance "L", up to three point
% loads with magnitudes "p1", "p2" and "p3", distance between the first and
% second point load "a12", distance between the second and third point
% loads "a23" and iteration distance "deltax":
% [ Max, Position ] = SSBmoving3point( L,p1,p2,p3,a12,a23,deltax )

x = 0:deltax:L;
d1 = 0:deltax:L+a12+a23;
d2 = d1-a12;
d3 = d1-a12-a23;

P1=zeros(1,length(d1));
P2=zeros(1,length(d1));
P3=zeros(1,length(d1));
By=zeros(1,length(d1));
Ay=zeros(1,length(d1));
m=zeros(1,length(x));

for n=1:length(d1)
    if d1(n)>L
        P1(n)=0;
    else
        P1(n)=p1;
    end

    if d2(n)<0 || d2(n)>L
        P2(n)=0;
    else
        P2(n)=p2;
    end

    if d3(n)<0 || d3(n)>L
        P3(n)=0;
    else
        P3(n)=p3;
    end

    % Reactions
    By(n) = (P3(n).*d3(n)+P2(n).*d2(n)+P1(n).*d1(n))./L; % Reaction at right end of beam
    Ay(n) = P3(n)+P2(n)+P1(n)-By(n); % Reaction at left end of beam

    for k=1:length(x)
        if x(k)<d3(n)
```

```
m(k)=Ay(n).*x(k);
elseif x(k)>=d3(n) & x(k)<d2(n)
    m(k)=Ay(n).*x(k)-P3(n).*(x(k)-d3(n));
elseif x(k)>=d2(n) & x(k)<d1(n)
    m(k)=Ay(n).*x(k)-P3(n).*(x(k)-d3(n))-P2(n).*(x(k)-d2(n));
else
    m(k)=Ay(n).*x(k)-P3(n).*(x(k)-d3(n))-P2(n).*(x(k)-d2(n))-P1(n).*(x(k)-d1(n));
end
end
M{n}=m;
end

for k=1:length(d1)
    a(k)=max(M{k}); % Finds the maximum moment from each load position
end

Max=max(a); % Finds the overall maximum moment from all tested cases
c=find(a==Max,1); % Identifies which combination produced the maximum moment
Position=d1(c); % Provides the position of the first load (P1) measured from the left end ✓
of the beam for the location which produced the maximum moment

end
```

```
% This script calculates the maximum moment produced by three point loads
% which are allowed to move across a simply supported beam. The distance
% between the first and second point loads is a fixed user defined value,
% but the distance between the second and third point load may be allowed
% to vary between a maximum and minimum set value. The code returns the
% value of the maximum moment produced, the position of the first load
% relative to the left end of the beam for the load position which produces
% the maximum moment and the value of the distance between the second and
% third loads which resulted in the largest moment.
%
% This code was designed to model the behavior of the HS20-44 truck used in
% the AASHTO HL-93 design load for bridges. It may also be used to model the
% design tandem by setting p1=p2=25, p3=0, a12=4 and a23min=a23max=0. Units
% are assumed to be kips and feet, consistent with the AASHTO
% Specifications, but the code is actually unit agnostic.

clear all
clc

L = 100; % Span length
p1 = 8; % Value of the first point load
p2 = 32; % Value of the second point load
p3 = 32; % Value of the third point load
a12 = 14; % Distance between the first and second point load
a23min = 14; % Minimum distance between second and third point load
a23max = 30; % Maximum distance between the second and third point load
deltax = L/1200; % Change in position of the loads between each calculation

x=0:deltax:L;
a23=a23min:deltax:a23max;

M=zeros(1,length(a23));
P=zeros(1,length(a23));

for k=1:length(a23)
    [M(k), P(k)]=SSBmoving3point(L,p1,p2,p3,a12,a23(k),deltax);
end

Maximum=max(M);
c=find(M==Maximum);
Position=P(c);
Length=a12+a23(c);

fprintf('Maximum moment produced = %f \n',Maximum)
fprintf('Position of front axle when the maximum moment is produced = %f \n',Position)
fprintf('Total length of truck which produced the maximum moment = %f \n\n',Length)
```

Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE) Summary				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
Aggregate				
General (Gravel or Crushed Rock)	0.083	0.0048	0.0052	Estimated from measured UK industrial fuel consumption data
Aluminium	Main data source: International Aluminium Institute (IAI) LCA studies (www.world-aluminium.org)			
General	155	8.24	9.16	Assumed (UK) ratio of 25.6% extrusions, 55.7% Rolled & 18.7% castings. Worldwide average recycled content of 33%.
Virgin	218	11.46	12.79	
Recycled	29.0	1.69	1.81	
Cast Products	159	8.28	9.22	Worldwide average recycled content of 33%.
Virgin	226	11.70	13.10	
Recycled	25.0	1.35	1.45	
Extruded	154	8.16	9.08	Worldwide average recycled content of 33%.
Virgin	214	11.20	12.50	
Recycled	34.0	1.98	2.12	
Rolled	155	8.26	9.18	Worldwide average recycled content of 33%.
Virgin	217	11.50	12.80	
Recycled	28	1.67	1.79	
Asphalt				
Asphalt, 4% (bitumen) binder content (by mass)	2.86	0.059	0.066	1.68 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Modelled from the bitumen binder content. The fuel consumption of asphalt mixing operations was taken from the Mineral Products Association (MPA). It represents typical UK industrial data. Feedstock energy is from the bitumen content.
Asphalt, 5% binder content	3.39	0.064	0.071	2.10 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Comments from 4% mix also apply.
Asphalt, 6% binder content	3.93	0.068	0.076	2.52 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Comments from 4% mix also apply.
Asphalt, 7% binder content	4.46	0.072	0.081	2.94 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Comments from 4% mix also apply.
Asphalt, 8% binder content	5.00	0.076	0.086	3.36 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Comments from 4% mix also apply.
Bitumen				
General	51	0.38 - 0.43 (?)	0.43 - 0.55 (?)	42 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Feedstock assumed to be typical energy content of Bitumen. Carbon dioxide emissions are particularly difficult to estimate, range given.
Brass				
General	44.00	2.46 (?)	2.64 (?)	Poor data availability. It is believed that the data may be largely dependent upon ore grade. Poor carbon data, making estimate of embodied carbon difficult.
Virgin	80.00	4.47 (?)	4.80 (?)	
Recycled	20.00	1.12 (?)	1.20 (?)	
Bricks				
General (Common Brick)	3.00	0.23	0.24	
EXAMPLE: Single Brick	6.9 MJ per brick	0.53 kgCO2 per brick	0.55	Assuming 2.3 kg per brick.
Limestone	0.85	?	-	
Bronze				
General	69.0 (?)	3.73 (?)	4.0 (?)	Average of the only two references
Carpet				
General Carpet	74 (187 per sqm)	3.9 (9.8 per sqm)	-	For per square meter estimates see material profile. Difficult to estimate, taken from Ref. 94.
Felt (Hair and Jute) Underlay	19.00	0.97	-	Ref. 94.
Nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 300 g/m2	130 MJ per sqm	6.7 (GWP) per sqm	6.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 1,477 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279. These carpets (inc. below) are a tufted surface pile made of 100% nylon (polyamide) with a woven textile backing and flame proofed on the basis of aluminium hydroxide.
Nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 500 g/m2	180 MJ per sqm	9.7 (GWP) per sqm	9.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 1,837 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 700 g/m2	230 MJ per sqm	12.7 (GWP) per sqm	12.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 2,147 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 900 g/m2	277 MJ per sqm	15.6 (GWP) per sqm	15.6 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 2,427 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 1100 g/m2	327 MJ per sqm	18.4 (GWP) per sqm	18.4 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 2,677 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Carpet tiles, nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 300 g/m2	178 MJ per sqm	7.75 (GWP) per sqm	7.75 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 4,123 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279. These carpet tiles (inc. below) are a tufted surface pile made of 100% nylon (polyamide) fleece-covered bitumen backing and flame-proofed on the basis of aluminium hydroxide
Carpet tiles, nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 500 g/m2	229 MJ per sqm	10.7 (GWP) per sqm	10.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 4,373 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Carpet tiles, nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 700 g/m2	279 MJ per sqm	13.7 (GWP) per sqm	13.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 4,623 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Carpet tiles, nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 900 g/m2	328 MJ per sqm	16.7 (GWP) per sqm	16.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 4,873 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Carpet tiles, nylon (Polyamide), pile weight 1100 g/m2	378 MJ per sqm	19.7 (GWP) per sqm	19.7 (GWP) per sqm	Total weight of this carpet 5,123 g/m2. See Refs. 277 & 279.
Polyethylterephthalate (PET)	106.50	5.56	-	Includes feedstock energy
Polypropylene	95.40	4.98	-	Includes feedstock energy, for per square meter see material profile
Polyurethane	72.10	3.76	-	Includes feedstock energy
Rubber	67.5 to 140	3.61 to 7.48	-	
Saturated Felt Underlay (impregnated with Asphalt or tar)	31.70	1.65	-	Ref. 94.
Wool	106.00	5.53	-	For per square meter see material profile. See Refs. 63, 201, 202 & 281 (Same author).
Cement				



Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE) Summary				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
General (UK weighted average)	4.5	0.73	0.74	Weighted average of all cement consumed within the UK. This includes all factory made cements (CEM I, CEM II, CEM III, CEM IV) and further blending of fly ash and ground granulated blast furnace slag. This data has been estimated from the British Cement Association's factsheets (see Ref. 59). 23% cementitious additions on average.
Average CEM I Portland Cement, 94% Clinker	5.50	0.93	0.95	This is a standard cement with no cementitious additions (i.e. fly ash or blast furnace slag). Composition 94% clinker, 5% gypsum, 1% minor additional constituents (mac's). This data has been estimated from the British Cement Association's factsheets (see Ref. 59.).
6-20% Fly Ash (CEM II/A-V)	5.28 to 4.51	0.88 (@ 6%) to 0.75 (@ 20%)	0.89 to 0.76	See material profile for further details.
21-35% Fly Ash (CEM II/B-V)	4.45 to 3.68	0.74 to 0.61	0.75 to 0.62	
21-35% GGBS (CEM II/B-S)	4.77 to 4.21	0.76 to 0.64	0.77 to 0.65	
36-65% GGBS (CEM III/A)	4.17 to 3.0	0.63 to 0.38	0.64 to 0.39	
66-80% GGBS (CEM II/B)	2.96 to 2.4	0.37 to 0.25	0.38 to 0.26	
Fibre Cement Panels - Uncoated	10.40	1.09	-	Few data points. Selected data modified from Ref. 107.
Fibre Cement Panels - (Colour) Coated	15.30	1.28	-	
Mortar (1:3 cement:sand mix)	1.33	0.208	0.221	Values estimated from the ICE Cement, Mortar & Concrete Model
Mortar (1:4)	1.11	0.171	0.182	
Mortar (1:5)	0.97	0.146	0.156	
Mortar (1:6)	0.85	0.127	0.136	
Mortar (1:½:4½ Cement:Lime:Sand mix)	1.34	0.200	0.213	
Mortar (1:1:6 Cement:Lime:Sand mix)	1.11	0.163	0.174	
Mortar (1:2:9 Cement:Lime:Sand mix)	1.03	0.145	0.155	
Cement stabilised soil @ 5%	0.68	0.060	0.061	Assumed 5% cement content.
Cement stabilised soil @ 8%	0.83	0.082	0.084	Assumed 8% stabiliser contents (6% cement and 2% quicklime)

Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE) Summary														
Materials		Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients									Comments			
		EE - MJ/kg			EC - kgCO2/kg			EC - kgCO2e/kg			EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon			
Ceramics														
General		10.00			0.66			0.70			Very large data range, difficult to select values for general ceramics.			
Fittings		20.00			1.07			1.14			Ref. 1.			
Sanitary Products		29.00			1.51			1.61			Limited data.			
Tiles and Cladding Panels		12.00			0.74			0.78			Difficult to select, large range, limited data. See Ref. 292.			
Clay														
General (Simple Baked Products)		3.00			0.23			0.24			General simple baked clay products (inc. terracotta and bricks)			
Tile		6.50			0.45			0.48						
Vitrified clay pipe DN 100 & DN 150		6.20			0.44			0.46						
Vitrified clay pipe DN 200 & DN 300		7.00			0.48			0.50						
Vitrified clay pipe DN 500		7.90			0.52			0.55						
Concrete														
General		0.75			0.100			0.107			It is strongly recommended to avoid selecting a 'general' value for concrete. Selecting data for a specific concrete type (often a ready mix concrete) will give greater accuracy, please see material profile. Assumed cement content 12% by mass.			
16/20 Mpa		0.70			0.093			0.100			Using UK weighted average cement (more representative of 'typical' concrete mixtures).			
20/25 MPa		0.74			0.100			0.107						
25/30 MPa		0.78			0.106			0.113						
28/35 MPa		0.82			0.112			0.120						
32/40 MPa		0.88			0.123			0.132						
40/50 MPa		1.00			0.141			0.151						
% Cement Replacement - Fly Ash		0%	15%	30%	0%	15%	30%	0%	15%	30%	Note 0% is a concrete using a CEM I cement (not typical)			
GEN 0 (6/8 MPa)		0.55	0.52	0.47	0.071	0.065	0.057	0.076	0.069	0.061	Compressive strength designation C6/8 Mpa. 28 day compressive strength under British cube method of 8 MPa, under European cylinder method 6 MPa. Possible uses: Kerb bedding and backing. Data is only cradle to factory gate but beyond this the average delivery distance of ready mix concrete is 8.3 km by road (see Ref. 244).			
GEN 1 (8/10 MPa)		0.70	0.65	0.59	0.097	0.088	0.077	0.104	0.094	0.082	Possible uses: mass concrete, mass fill, mass foundations, trench foundations, blinding, strip footing.			
GEN 2 (12/15 MPa)		0.76	0.71	0.64	0.106	0.098	0.087	0.114	0.105	0.093	-			
GEN 3 (16/20 MPa)		0.81	0.75	0.68	0.115	0.105	0.093	0.123	0.112	0.100	Possible uses: garage floors.			
RC 20/25 (20/25 MPa)		0.86	0.81	0.73	0.124	0.114	0.101	0.132	0.122	0.108	-			
RC 25/30 (25/30 MPa)		0.91	0.85	0.77	0.131	0.121	0.107	0.140	0.130	0.115	Possible uses: reinforced foundations.			
RC 28/35 (28/35 MPa)		0.95	0.90	0.82	0.139	0.129	0.116	0.148	0.138	0.124	Possible uses: reinforced foundations, ground floors.			
RC 32/40 (32/40 MPa)		1.03	0.97	0.89	0.153	0.143	0.128	0.163	0.152	0.136	Possible uses: structural purposes, in situ floors, walls, superstructure.			
RC 40/50 (40/50 MPa)		1.17	1.10	0.99	0.176	0.164	0.146	0.188	0.174	0.155	Possible uses: high strength applications, precasting.			
PAV1		0.95	0.89	0.81	0.139	0.129	0.115	0.148	0.138	0.123	Possible uses: domestic parking and outdoor paving.			
PAV2		1.03	0.97	0.89	0.153	0.143	0.128	0.163	0.152	0.137	Possible uses: heavy duty outdoor paving.			
% Cement Replacement - Blast Furnace Slag		0%	25%	50%	0%	25%	50%	0%	15%	30%	Note 0% is a concrete using a CEM I cement			
GEN 0 (6/8 MPa)		0.55	0.48	0.41	0.071	0.056	0.042	0.076	0.060	0.045	See fly ash mixtures			
GEN 1 (8/10 MPa)		0.70	0.60	0.50	0.097	0.075	0.054	0.104	0.080	0.058				
GEN 2 (12/15 MPa)		0.76	0.62	0.55	0.106	0.082	0.061	0.114	0.088	0.065				
GEN 3 (16/20 MPa)		0.81	0.69	0.57	0.115	0.090	0.065	0.123	0.096	0.070				
RC 20/25 (20/25 MPa)		0.86	0.74	0.62	0.124	0.097	0.072	0.132	0.104	0.077				
RC 25/30 (25/30 MPa)		0.91	0.78	0.65	0.131	0.104	0.076	0.140	0.111	0.081				
RC 28/35 (28/35 MPa)		0.95	0.83	0.69	0.139	0.111	0.082	0.148	0.119	0.088				
RC 32/40 (32/40 MPa)		1.03	0.91	0.78	0.153	0.125	0.094	0.163	0.133	0.100				
RC 40/50 (40/50 MPa)		1.17	1.03	0.87	0.176	0.144	0.108	0.188	0.153	0.115				
PAV1		0.95	0.82	0.70	0.139	0.111	0.083	0.148	0.118	0.088				
PAV2		1.03	0.91	0.77	0.153	0.125	0.094	0.163	0.133	0.100				
COMMENTS														
The first column represents standard concrete, created with a CEM I Portland cement. The other columns are estimates based on a direct substitution of fly ash or blast furnace slag in place of the cement content. The ICE Cement, Mortar & Concrete Model was applied. Please see important notes in the concrete material profile.														
REINFORCED CONCRETE - Modification Factors														
For reinforcement add this value to the appropriate concrete coefficient for each 100 kg of rebar per m3 of concrete		1.04			0.072			0.077			Add for each 100 kg steel rebar per m3 concrete. Use multiple of this value, i.e. for 150 kg steel use a factor of 1.5 times these values.			
EXAMPLE: Reinforced RC 25/30 MPa (with 110 kg per m3 concrete)		1.92 MJ/kg (0.78 + 1.04 * 1.1)			0.185 kgCO2/kg (0.106 + 0.072 * 1.1)			0.198 kgCO2/kg (0.113 + 0.077 * 1.1)			with 110 kg rebar per m3 concrete. UK weighted average cement. This assumes the UK typical steel scenario (59% recycled content). Please consider if this is in line with the rest of your study (goal and scope) or the requirements of a predefined method.			
PRECAST (PREFABRICATED) CONCRETE - Modification Factors														
For precast add this value to the selected coefficient of the appropriate concrete mix		0.45			0.027			0.029			For each 1 kg precast concrete. This example is using a RC 40/50 strength class and is not necessarily indicative of an average precast product. Includes UK recorded plant operations and estimated transportation of the constituents to the factory gate (38km aggregates, estimated 100km cement). Data is only cradle to factory gate but beyond this the average delivery distance of precast is 155km by road (see Ref. 244). UK weighted average cement. See also the new report on precast concrete pipes (Ref 300).			
EXAMPLE: Precast RC 40/50 MPa		1.50 MJ/kg (1.00 + 0.50)			0.168 kgCO2/kg (0.141 + 0.027)			0.180 kgCO2/kg (0.151 + 0.029)						
EXAMPLE: Precast RC 40/50 with reinforcement (with 80kg per m³)		2.33 MJ/kg (1.50 + 1.04 * 0.8)			0.229 kgCO2/kg (0.171 + 0.072 * 0.8)			0.242 kgCO2/kg (0.180 + 0.077 * 0.8)						
CONCRETE BLOCKS (ICE CMC Model Values)														
Block - 8 MPa Compressive Strength		0.59			0.059			0.063			Estimated from the concrete block mix proportions, plus an allowance for concrete block curing, plant operations and transport of materials to factory gate.			
Block - 10 MPa		0.67			0.073			0.078						
Block -12 MPa		0.72			0.082			0.088						
Block -13 MPa		0.83			0.100			0.107						

INVENTORY OF CARBON & ENERGY (ICE) SUMMARY					
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments	
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon	
Autoclaved Aerated Blocks (AAC's)	3.50	0.24 to 0.375	-	Not ICE CMC model results.	
NOMINAL PROPORTIONS METHOD (Volume), Proportions from BS 8500:2006 (ICE Cement, Mortar & Concrete Model Calculations)					
1:1:2 Cement:Sand:Aggregate	1.28	0.194	0.206	High strength concrete. All of these values were estimated assuming the <b>UK average content of cementitious additions</b> (i.e. fly ash, GGBS) for <b>factory supplied cements</b> in the UK, see Ref. 59, plus the proportions of other constituents.	
1:1.5:3	0.99	0.145	0.155		Often used in floor slab, columns & load bearing structure.
1:2:4	0.82	0.116	0.124		Often used in construction of buildings under 3 storeys.
1:2.5:5	0.71	0.097	0.104		
1:3:6	0.63	0.084	0.090	Non-structural mass concrete.	
1:4:8	0.54	0.069	0.074		
BY CEM I CEMENT CONTENT - kg CEM I cement content per cubic meter concrete (ICE CMC Model Results)					
120 kg / m³ concrete	0.49	0.060	0.064	Assumed density of 2,350 kg/m3. Interpolation of the CEM I cement content is possible. These numbers assume the <b>CEM I cement content (not the total cementitious content)</b> , i.e. they do not include cementitious additions). They may also be used for fly ash mixtures without modification, but they are likely to slightly underestimate mixtures that have additional GGBS due to the higher embodied energy and carbon of GGBS (in comparison to aggregates and fly ash).	
200 kg / m³ concrete	0.67	0.091	0.097		
300 kg / m³ concrete	0.91	0.131	0.140		
400kg / m³ concrete	1.14	0.170	0.181		
500 kg / m³ concrete	1.37	0.211	0.224		
MISCELLANEOUS VALUES					
Fibre-Reinforced	7.75 (?)	0.45 (?)	-	Literature estimate, likely to vary widely. High uncertainty.	
Very High GGBS Mix	0.66	0.049	0.050	Data based on Lafarge 'Envirocrete', which is a C28/35 MPa, very high GGBS replacement value concrete	

Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE) Summary				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
Copper				
EU Tube & Sheet	42.00	2.60	2.71	EU production data, estimated from Kupfer Institut LCI data. 37% recycled content (the 3 year world average). World average data is expected to be higher than these values.
Virgin	57.00	3.65	3.81	
Recycled	16.50	0.80	0.84	
Recycled from high grade scrap	18 (?)	1.1 (?)		Uncertain, difficult to estimate with the data available.
Recycled from low grade scrap	50 (?)	3.1 (?)		
Glass				
Primary Glass	15.00	0.86	0.91	Includes process CO2 emissions from primary glass manufacture.
Secondary Glass	11.50	0.55	0.59	EE estimated from Ref 115.
Fibreglass (Glasswool)	28.00	1.54	-	Large data range, but the selected value is inside a small band of frequently quoted values.
Toughened	23.50	1.27	1.35	Only three data sources
Insulation				
General Insulation	45.00	1.86	-	Estimated from typical market shares. Feedstock Energy 16.5 MJ/kg (Included)
Cellular Glass	27.00	-	-	Ref. 54.
Cellulose	0.94 to 3.3	-	-	
Cork	4.00	0.19	-	Ref. 55.
Fibreglass (Glasswool)	28.00	1.35	-	Poor data difficult to select appropriate value
Flax (Insulation)	39.50	1.70	-	Ref. 2. 5.97 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Mineral wool	16.60	1.20	1.28	
Paper wool	20.17	0.63	-	Ref. 2
Polystyrene	See Plastics	See Plastics	-	see plastics
Polyurethane	See Plastics	See Plastics	-	see plastics
Rockwool	16.80	1.05	1.12	Cradle to Grave
Woodwool (loose)	10.80	-	-	Ref. 205.
Woodwool (Board)	20.00	0.98	-	Ref. 55.
Wool (Recycled)	20.90	-	-	Refs. 63, 201, 202 & 281.
Iron				
General	25.00	1.91 (?)	2.03	It was difficult to estimate the embodied energy and carbon of iron with the data available.
Lead				
General	25.21	1.57	1.67	Allocated (divided) on a mass basis, assumes recycling rate of 61%
Virgin	49.00	3.18	3.37	
Recycled	10.00	0.54	0.58	Scrap batteries are a main feedstock for recycled lead
Lime				
General	5.30	0.76	0.78	Embodied carbon was difficult to estimate
Linoleum				
General	25.00	1.21	-	Data difficult to select, large data range.
Miscellaneous				
Asbestos	7.40	-	-	Ref. 4.
Calcium Silicate Sheet	2.00	0.13	-	Ref. 55.
Chromium	83	5.39	-	Ref. 22.
Cotton, Padding	27.10	1.28	-	Ref. 38.
Cotton, Fabric	143	6.78	-	Ref. 38.
Damp Proof Course/Membrane	134 (?)	4.2 (?)	-	Uncertain estimate.
Felt General	36	-	-	
Flax	33.50	1.70	-	Ref. 2.
Fly Ash	0.10	0.008	-	No allocation from fly ash producing system.
Grit	0.12	0.01	-	Ref. 114.
Ground Limestone	0.62	0.032	-	
Carpet Grout	30.80	-	-	Ref. 169.
Glass Reinforced Plastic - GRP - Fibreglass	100	8.10	-	Ref. 1.
Lithium	853	5.30	-	Ref. 22.
Mandolite	63	1.40	-	Ref. 1.
Mineral Fibre Tile (Roofing)	37	2.70	-	Ref. 1.
Manganese	52	3.50	-	Ref. 22.
Mercury	87	4.94	-	Ref. 22.
Molybdenum	378	30.30	-	Ref. 22.
Nickel	164	12.40	-	Ref. 114.
Perlite - Expanded	10.00	0.52	-	Ref. 114.
Perlite - Natural	0.66	0.03	-	Ref. 114.
Quartz powder	0.85	0.02	-	Ref. 114.
Shingle	11.30	0.30	-	Ref. 70.
Silicon	2355	-	-	Ref. 167.
Slag (GGBS)	1.60	0.083	-	Ground Granulated Blast Furnace Slag (GGBS), economic allocation.
Silver	128.20	6.31	-	Ref. 148.
Straw	0.24	0.01	-	Refs. 63, 201, 202 & 281.
Terrazzo Tiles	1.40	0.12	-	Ref. 1.
Vanadium	3710	228	-	Ref. 22.
Vermiculite - Expanded	7.20	0.52	-	Ref. 114.
Vermiculite - Natural	0.72	0.03	-	Ref. 114.
Vicucld	70.00	-	-	Ref. 1.
Water	0.01	0.001	-	
Wax	52.00	-	-	Ref. 169.
Wood stain/Varnish	50.00	5.35	-	Ref. 1.
Yttrium	1470	84.00	-	Ref. 22.
Zirconium	1610	97.20	-	Ref. 22.
Paint				
General	70.00	2.42	2.91	Large variations in data, especially for embodied carbon. Includes feedstock energy. Water based paints have a 70% market share. Water based paint has a lower embodied energy than solvent based paint.
EXAMPLE: Single Coat	10.5 MJ/Sqm	0.36 kgCO2/Sqm	0.44	Assuming 6.66 Sqm Coverage per kg
EXAMPLE: Double Coat	21.0 MJ/Sqm	0.73 kgCO2/Sqm	0.87	Assuming 3.33 Sqm Coverage per kg
EXAMPLE: Triple Coat	31.5 MJ/Sqm	1.09 kgCO2/Sqm	1.31	Assuming 2.22 Sqm Coverage per kg

INVENTORY OF CARBON & ENERGY (ICE) SUMMARY				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
Waterborne Paint	59.00	2.12	2.54	Waterborne paint has a 70% of market share. Includes feedstock energy.
Solventborne Paint	97.00	3.13	3.76	Solventborne paint has a 30% share of the market. Includes feedstock energy. It was difficult to estimate carbon emissions for Solventborne paint.
Paper				
Paperboard (General for construction use)	24.80	1.29	-	Excluding calorific value (CV) of wood, excludes carbon sequestration/biogenic carbon storage.
Fine Paper	28.20	1.49	-	Excluding CV of wood, excludes carbon sequestration
EXAMPLE: 1 packet A4 paper	70.50	3.73	-	Standard 80g/sqm printing paper, 500 sheets a pack. Doesn't include printing.
Wallpaper	36.40	1.93	-	
Plaster				

INVENTORY OF CARBON & ENERGY (ICE) SUMMARY				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
General (Gypsum)	1.80	0.12	0.13	Problems selecting good value, inconsistent figures, West et al believe this is because of past aggregation of EE with cement
Plasterboard	6.75	0.38	0.39	See Ref [WRAP] for further info on GWP data, including disposal impacts which are significant for Plasterboard.
Plastics	Main data source: Plastics Europe (www.plasticseurope.org) ecoprofiles			
General	80.50	2.73	3.31	35.6 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Determined by the average use of each type of plastic used in the European construction industry.
ABS	95.30	3.05	3.76	48.6 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
General Polyethylene	83.10	2.04	2.54	54.4 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Based on average consumption of types of polyethylene in European construction
High Density Polyethylene (HDPE) Resin	76.70	1.57	1.93	54.3 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Doesn't include the final fabrication.
HDPE Pipe	84.40	2.02	2.52	55.1 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Low Density Polyethylene (LDPE) Resin	78.10	1.69	2.08	51.6 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Doesn't include the final fabrication
LDPE Film	89.30	2.13	2.60	55.2 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Nylon (Polyamide) 6 Polymer	120.50	5.47	9.14	38.6 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Doesn't include final fabrication. Plastics Europe state that two thirds of nylon is used as fibres (textiles, carpets...etc) in Europe and that most of the remainder as injection mouldings. Dinitrogen monoxide and methane emissions are very significant contributors to GWP.
Nylon (polyamide) 6,6 Polymer	138.60	6.54	7.92	50.7 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Doesn't include final fabrication (i.e. injection moulding). See comments for Nylon 6 polymer.
Polycarbonate	112.90	6.03	7.62	36.7 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Doesn't include final fabrication.
Polypropylene, Orientated Film	99.20	2.97	3.43	55.7 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included).
Polypropylene, Injection Moulding	115.10	3.93	4.49	54 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). If biomass benefits are included the CO2 may reduce to 3.85 kgCO2/kg, and GWP down to 4.41 kg CO2e/kg.
Expanded Polystyrene	88.60	2.55	3.29	46.2 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
General Purpose Polystyrene	86.40	2.71	3.43	46.3 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
High Impact Polystyrene	87.40	2.76	3.42	46.4 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Thermoformed Expanded Polystyrene	109.20	3.45	4.39	49.7 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Polyurethane Flexible Foam	102.10	4.06	4.84	33.47 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Poor data availability for feedstock energy
Polyurethane Rigid Foam	101.50	3.48	4.26	37.07 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Poor data availability for feedstock energy
PVC General	77.20	2.61	3.10	28.1 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Based on market average consumption of types of PVC in the European construction industry
PVC Pipe	67.50	2.56	3.23	24.4 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). If biomass benefits are included the CO2 may reduce to 2.51 kgCO2/kg, and GWP down to 3.23 kg CO2e/kg.
Calendered Sheet PVC	68.60	2.61	3.19	24.4 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). If biomass benefits are included the CO2 may reduce to 2.56 kgCO2/kg, and GWP down to 3.15 kg CO2e/kg.
PVC Injection Moulding	95.10	2.69	3.30	35.1 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). If biomass benefits are included the CO2 may reduce to 2.23 kgCO2/kg, and GWP down to 2.84 kg CO2e/kg.
UPVC Film	69.40	2.57	3.16	25.3 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Rubber				
General	91.00	2.66	2.85	40 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included)
Sand				
General	0.081	0.0048	0.0051	Estimated from real UK industrial fuel consumption data
Sealants and adhesives				
Epoxide Resin	137.00	5.70	-	42.6 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Source: www.plasticseurope.org
Mastic Sealant	62 to 200	-	-	
Melamine Resin	97.00	4.19	-	Feedstock energy 18 MJ/kg - estimated from Ref 34.
Phenol Formaldehyde	88.00	2.98	-	Feedstock energy 32 MJ/kg - estimated from Ref 34.
Urea Formaldehyde	70.00	2.76	-	Feedstock energy 18 MJ/kg - estimated from Ref 34.
Soil				
General (Rammed Soil)	0.45	0.023	0.024	
Cement stabilised soil @ 5%	0.68	0.060	0.061	Assumed 5% cement content.
Cement stabilised soil @ 8%	0.83	0.082	0.084	Assumed 8% stabiliser content (6% cement and 2% lime).
GGBS stabilised soil	0.65	0.045	0.047	Assumed 8% stabiliser content (8% GGBS and 2% lime).
Fly ash stabilised soil	0.56	0.039	0.041	Assumed 10% stabiliser content (8% fly ash and 2% lime).



Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE) Summary				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
Steel	Main data source: International Iron & Steel Institute (IISI) LCA studies (www.worldsteel.org)			
UK (EU) STEEL DATA - EU average recycled content - See material profile (and Annex on recycling methods) for usage guide				
General - UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	20.10	1.37	1.46	EU 3-average recycled content of 59%. Estimated from UK's consumption mixture of types of steel (excluding stainless). <b>All data doesn't include the final cutting of the steel products to the specified dimensions or further fabrication activities.</b> Estimated from World Steel Association (Worldsteel) LCA data.
Virgin	35.40	2.71	2.89	
Recycled	9.40	0.44	0.47	Could not collect strong statistics on consumption mix of recycled steel.
Bar & rod - UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	17.40	1.31	1.40	EU 3-average recycled content of 59%
Virgin	29.20	2.59	2.77	
Recycled	8.80	0.42	0.45	
Coil (Sheet) - UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	18.80	1.30	1.38	Effective recycled content because recycling route is not typical. EU 3-average recycled content of 59%
Virgin	32.80	2.58	2.74	
Recycled	Not Typical Production Route			
Coil (Sheet), Galvanised - UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	22.60	1.45	1.54	Effective recycled content because recycling route is not typical. EU 3-average recycled content of 59%
Virgin	40.00	2.84	3.01	
Engineering steel - Recycled	13.10	0.68	0.72	
Pipe- UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	19.80	1.37	1.45	Effective recycled content because recycling route is not typical. EU 3-average recycled content of 59%
Virgin	34.70	2.71	2.87	
Recycled	Not Typical Production Route			
Plate- UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	25.10	1.55	1.66	Effective recycled content because recycling route is not typical. EU 3-average recycled content of 59%
Virgin	45.40	3.05	3.27	
Recycled	Not Typical Production Route			
Section- UK (EU) Average Recycled Content	21.50	1.42	1.53	
Virgin	38.00	2.82	3.03	
Recycled	10.00	0.44	0.47	
Wire - Virgin	36.00 (?)	2.83 (?)	3.02	
Stainless	56.70	6.15		World average data from the Institute of Stainless Steel Forum (ISSF) life cycle inventory data. Selected data is for the most popular grade (304). Stainless steel does not have separate primary and recycled material production routes.
OTHER STEEL DATA - 'R.O.W' and 'World' average recycled contents - See material profile (and Annex on recycling methods) for usage guide				
General - R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	26.20	1.90	2.03	Rest of World (non-E.U.) consumption of steel. 3 year average recycled content of 35.5%.
General - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	25.30	1.82	1.95	Whole world 3 year average recycled content of 39%.
Bar & rod- R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	22.30	1.82	1.95	Comments above apply. See material profile for further information.
Bar & rod - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	21.60	1.74	1.86	
Coil - R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	24.40	1.81	1.92	
Coil - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	23.50	1.74	1.85	
Coil, Galvanised - R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	29.50	2.00	2.12	
Coil, Galvanised - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	28.50	1.92	2.03	
Pipe - R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	25.80	1.90	2.01	
Pipe - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	24.90	1.83	1.94	
Plate - R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	33.20	2.15	2.31	
Plate - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	32.00	2.06	2.21	
Section - R.O.W. Avg. Recy. Cont.	28.10	1.97	2.12	
Section - World Avg. Recy. Cont.	27.10	1.89	2.03	
Stone	Data on stone was difficult to select, with high standard deviations and data ranges.			
General	1.26 (?)	0.073 (?)	0.079	ICE database average (statistic), uncertain. See material profile.
Granite	11.00	0.64	0.70	Estimated from Ref 116.
Limestone	1.50	0.087	0.09	Estimated from Ref 188.
Marble	2.00	0.116	0.13	
Marble tile	3.33	0.192	0.21	Ref. 40.
Sandstone	1.00 (?)	0.058 (?)	0.06	Uncertain estimate based on Ref. 262.
Shale	0.03	0.002	0.002	
Slate	0.1 to 1.0	0.006 to 0.058	0.007 to 0.063	Large data range
Timber	Note: These values were difficult to estimate because timber has a high data variability. These values exclude the energy content of the wooden product (the Calorific Value (CV) from burning). See the material profile for guidance on the new data structure for embodied carbon (i.e. split into foss and bio)			
General	10.00	0.30 <sub>foss</sub> +0.41 <sub>bio</sub>	0.31 <sub>foss</sub> +0.41 <sub>bio</sub>	Estimated from UK consumption mixture of timber products in 2007 (Timber Trade Federation statistics). Includes 4.3 MJ bio-energy. All values do not include the CV of timber product and exclude carbon storage.
Glue Laminated timber	12.00	0.39 <sub>foss</sub> +0.45 <sub>bio</sub>	0.42 <sub>foss</sub> +0.45 <sub>bio</sub>	Includes 4.9 MJ bio-energy.
Hardboard	16.00	0.54 <sub>foss</sub> +0.51 <sub>bio</sub>	0.58 <sub>foss</sub> +0.51 <sub>bio</sub>	Hardboard is a type of fibreboard with a density above 800 kg/m3. Includes 5.6 MJ bio-energy.
Laminated Veneer Lumber	9.50	0.31 <sub>foss</sub> +0.32 <sub>bio</sub>	0.33 <sub>foss</sub> +0.32 <sub>bio</sub>	Ref 150. Includes 3.5 MJ bio-energy.
MDF	11 (?)	0.37 <sub>foss</sub> +0.35 <sub>bio</sub>	0.39 <sub>foss</sub> +0.35 <sub>bio</sub>	Wide density range (350-800 kg/m3). Includes 3.8 MJ bio-energy.
Oriented Strand Board (OSB)	15.00	0.42 <sub>foss</sub> +0.54 <sub>bio</sub>	0.45 <sub>foss</sub> +0.54 <sub>bio</sub>	Estimated from Refs. 103 and 150. Includes 5.9 MJ bio-energy.
Particle Board	14.50	0.52 <sub>foss</sub> +0.32 <sub>bio</sub>	0.54 <sub>foss</sub> +0.32 <sub>bio</sub>	Very large data range, difficult to select appropriate values. Modified from CORRIM reports. Includes 3.2 MJ bio-energy (uncertain estimate).
Plywood	15.00	0.42 <sub>foss</sub> +0.65 <sub>bio</sub>	0.45 <sub>foss</sub> +0.65 <sub>bio</sub>	Includes 7.1 MJ bio-energy.
Sawn Hardwood	10.40	0.23 <sub>foss</sub> + 0.63 <sub>bio</sub>	0.24 <sub>foss</sub> + 0.63 <sub>bio</sub>	It was difficult to select values for hardwood, the data was estimated from the CORRIM studies (Ref. 88). Includes 6.3 MJ bio-energy.
Sawn Softwood	7.40	0.19 <sub>foss</sub> +0.39 <sub>bio</sub>	0.20 <sub>foss</sub> +0.39 <sub>bio</sub>	Includes 4.2 MJ bio-energy.

Inventory of Carbon & Energy (ICE) Summary				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
Veneer Particleboard (Furniture)	23 <sub>(fos + bio)</sub>	(?)	(?)	Unknown split of fossil based and biogenic fuels.
<a href="#">Tin</a>				
Tin Coated Plate (Steel)	19.2 to 54.7	1.04 to 2.95	-	
Tin	250.00	13.50	14.47	lack of modern data, large data range
<a href="#">Titanium</a>				
Virgin	361 to 745	19.2 to 39.6 (??)	20.6 to 42.5 (??)	lack of modern data, large data range, small sample size
Recycled	258.00	13.7 (??)	14.7 (??)	lack of modern data, large data range, small sample size
<a href="#">Vinyl Flooring</a>				
General	68.60	2.61	3.19	23.58 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included), Same value as PVC calendered sheet. <i>Note: the book version of ICE contains the wrong values. These values are up to date</i>
Vinyl Composite Tiles (VCT)	13.70	-	-	Ref. 94.
<a href="#">Zinc</a>				
General	53.10	2.88	3.09	Uncertain carbon estimates, currently estimated from typical UK industrial fuel mix. Recycled content of general Zinc 30%.
Virgin	72.00	3.90	4.18	
Recycled	9.00	0.49	0.52	



INVENTORY OF CARBON & ENERGY (ICE) SUMMARY				
Materials	Embodied Energy & Carbon Coefficients			Comments
	EE - MJ/kg	EC - kgCO2/kg	EC - kgCO2e/kg	EE = Embodied Energy, EC = Embodied Carbon
Miscellaneous (No material profiles):				
	Embodied Energy - MJ	Embodied Carbon - Kg CO2		
PV Modules	MJ/sqm	Kg CO2/sqm		Embodied carbon estimated from typical UK industrial fuel mix. This is not an ideal method.
Monocrystalline	4750 (2590 to 8640)	242 (132 to 440)	-	
Polycrystalline	4070 (1945 to 5660)	208 (99 to 289)	-	
Thin Film	1305 (775 to 1805)	67 (40 to 92)	-	
Roads	Main data source: ICE reference number 147			
Asphalt road - Hot construction method - 40 yrs	2,509 MJ/Sqm	93 KgCO2/Sqm	99 KgCO2/Sqm	730 MJ/Sqm Feedstock Energy (Included). For more detailed data see reference 147. (Swedish study). The data in this report was modified to fit within the ICE framework. Includes all sub-base layers to construct a road. Sum of construction, maintenance, operation.
Construction	1,069 MJ/Sqm	30.9 KgCO2/Sqm	32.8 KgCO2/Sqm	480 MJ/Sqm Feedstock Energy (Included)
Maintenance - 40 yrs	471 MJ/Sqm	11.6 KgCO2/Sqm	12.3 KgCO2/Sqm	250 MJ/Sqm Feedstock Energy (Included)
Operation - 40 yrs	969 MJ/Sqm	50.8 KgCO2/Sqm	54.0 KgCO2/Sqm	Swedish scenario of typical road operation, includes street and traffic lights (95% of total energy), road clearing, sweeping, gritting and snow clearing.
Asphalt road - Cold construction method - 40 yrs	3,030 MJ/Sqm	91 KgCO2/Sqm	97 KgCO2/Sqm	1,290 MJ/kg Feedstock Energy (Included). Sum of construction, maintenance, operation.
Construction	825 MJ/Sqm	26.5 KgCO2/Sqm	28.2 KgCO2/Sqm	320 MJ/Sqm Feedstock Energy (Included)
Maintenance - 40 yrs	1,556 MJ/Sqm	13.9 KgCO2/Sqm	14.8 KgCO2/Sqm	970 MJ/Sqm Feedstock Energy (Included)
Operation - 40 yrs	969 MJ/Sqm	50.8 KgCO2/Sqm	54.0 KgCO2/Sqm	See hot rolled asphalt.
Concrete road - 40 yrs	2,084 MJ/Sqm	142 KgCO2/Sqm	-	Sum of construction, maintenance, operation.
Construction	885 MJ/Sqm	77 KgCO2/Sqm	-	
Maintenance - 40 yrs	230 MJ/Sqm	14.7 KgCO2/Sqm	-	
Operation - 40 yrs	969 MJ/Sqm	50.8 KgCO2/Sqm	-	Swedish scenario of typical road operation, includes street and traffic lights (95% of total energy), and also road clearing, sweeping, gritting and snow clearing.
Note: The above data for roads were based on a single reference (ref 145). There were other references available but it was not possible to process the reports into useful units (per sqm). One of the other references indicates a larger difference between concrete and asphalt roads than the data above. If there is a particular interest in roads the reader is recommended to review the literature in further detail.				
Windows	MJ per Window			
1.2mx1.2m Single Glazed Timber Framed Unit	286 (?)	14.6 (?)	-	Embodied carbon estimated from typical UK industrial fuel mix
1.2mx1.2m Double Glazed (Air or Argon Filled):	--	--	-	--
Aluminium Framed	5470	279	-	
PVC Framed	2150 to 2470	110 to 126	-	
Aluminium -Clad Timber Framed	950 to 1460	48 to 75	-	
Timber Framed	230 to 490	12 to 25	-	
			-	
Krypton Filled Add:	510	26	-	
Xenon Filled Add:	4500	229	-	
NOTE: Not all of the data could be converted to full GHG's. It was estimated from the fuel use only (i.e. Not including any process related emissions) the full CO2e is approximately 6 percent higher than the CO2 only value of embodied carbon. This is for the average mixture of fuels used in the UK industry.				

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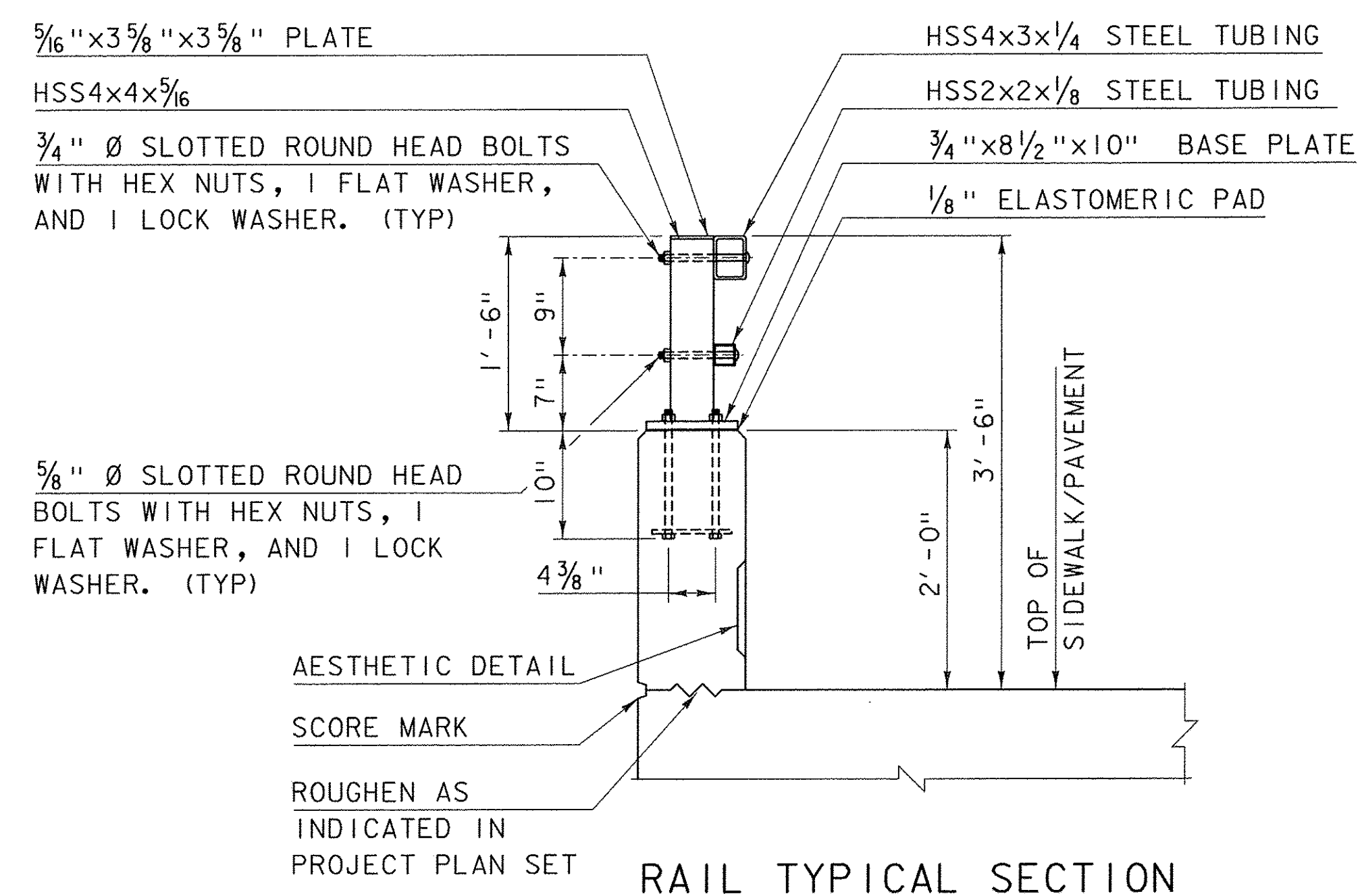
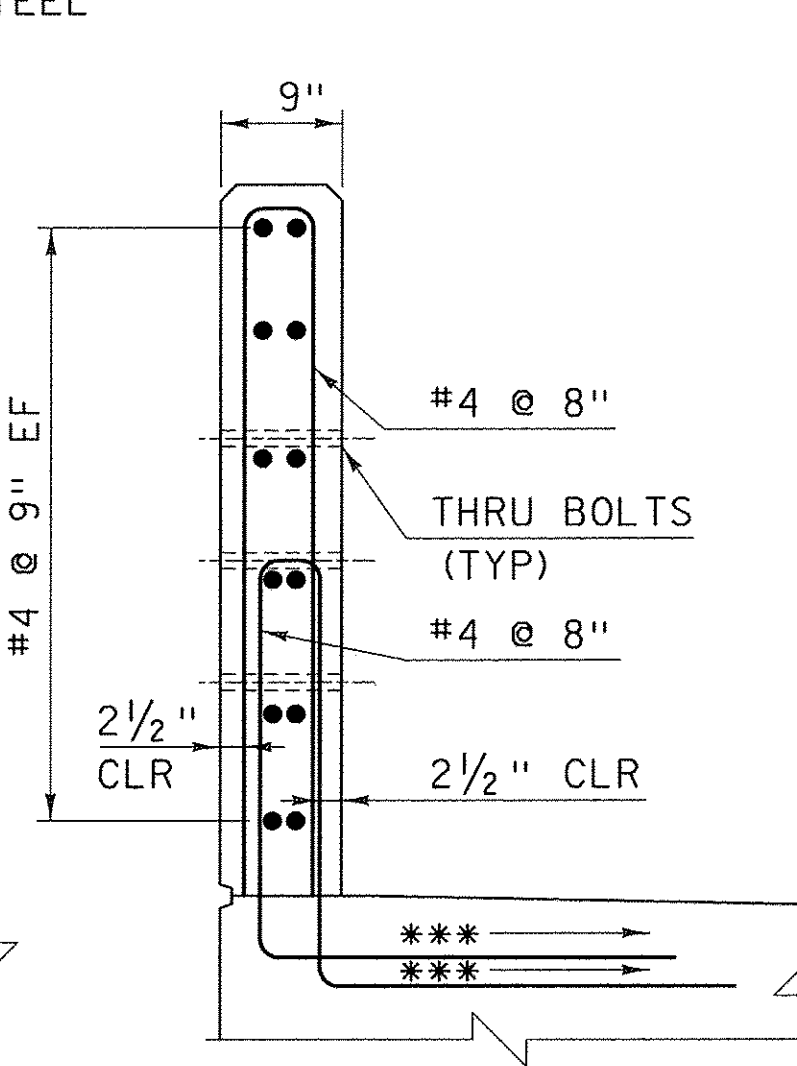
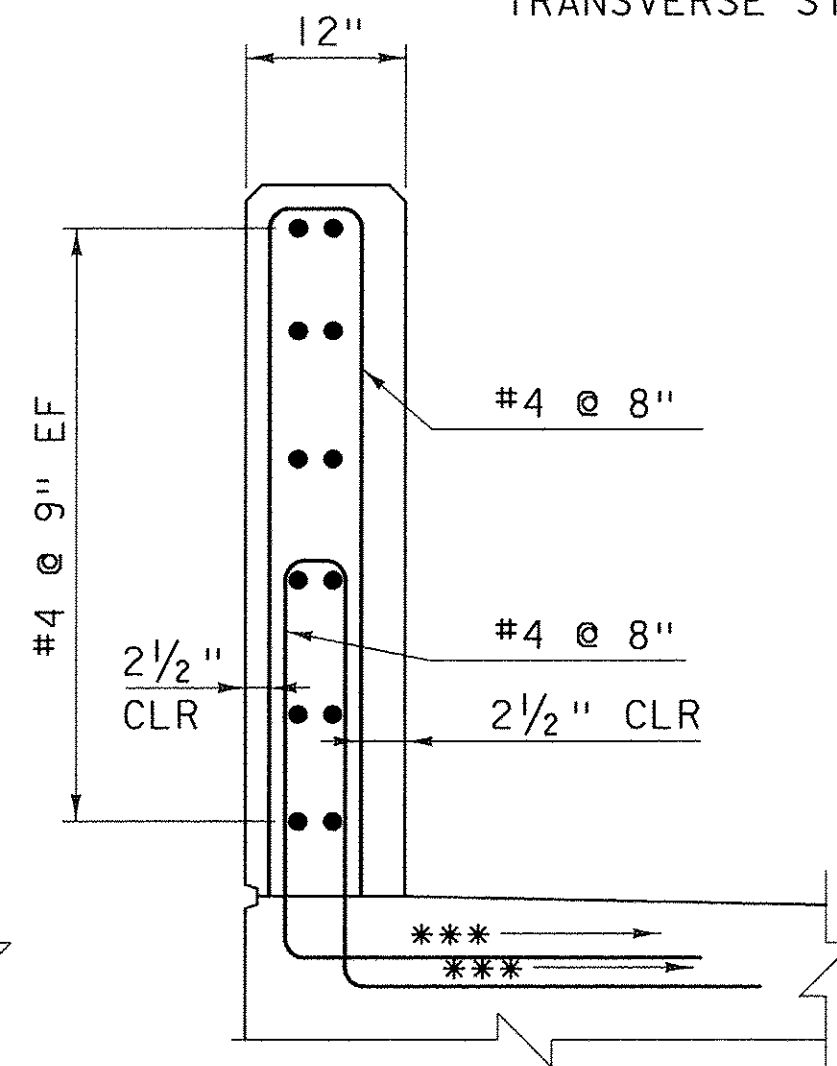
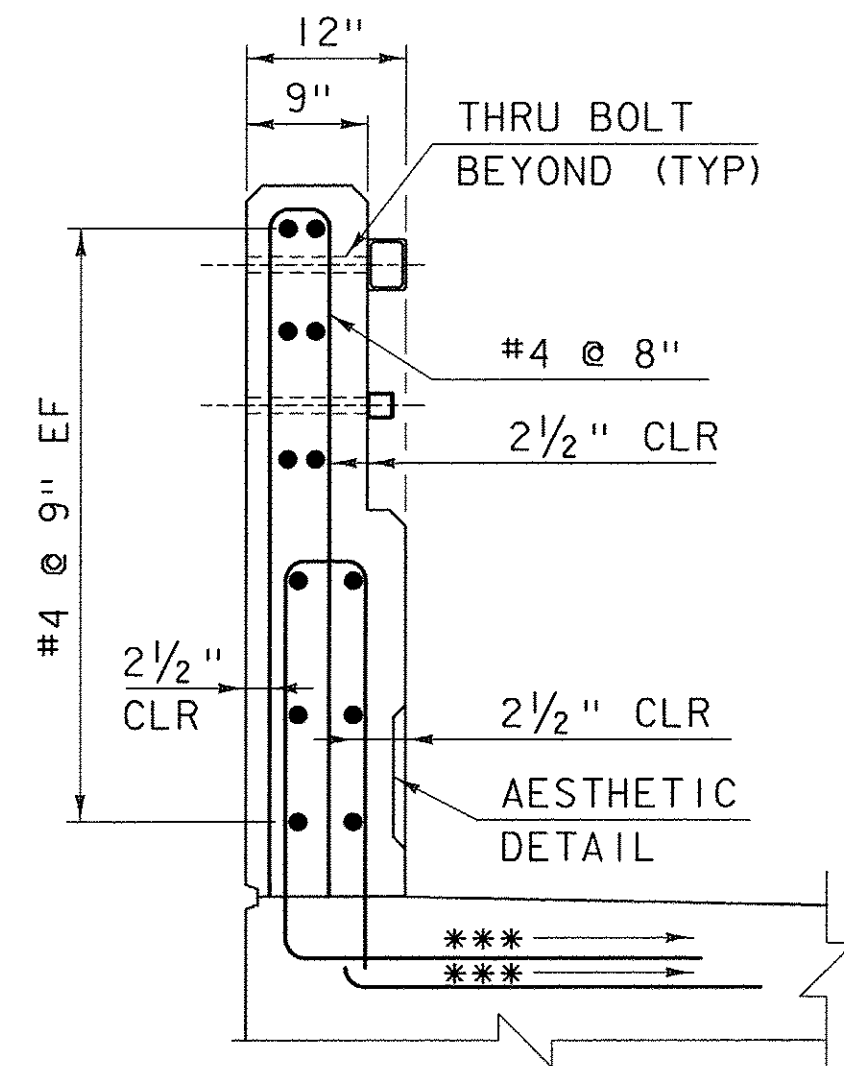
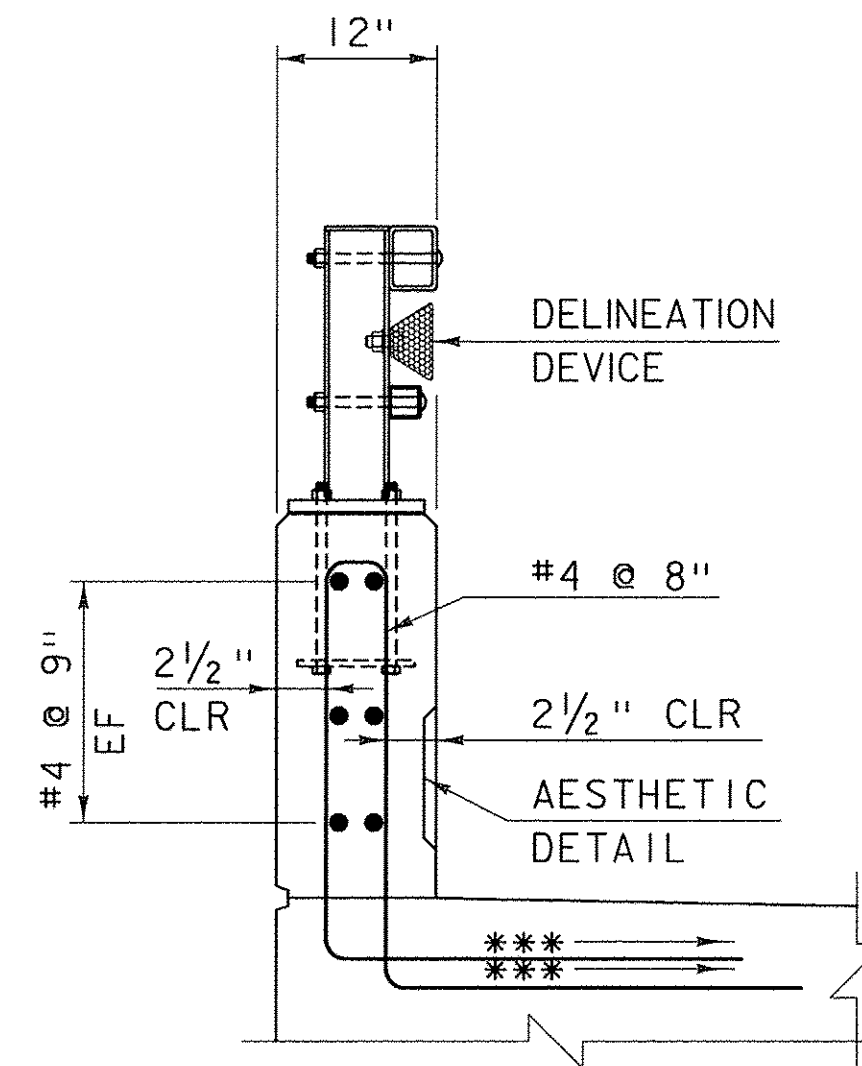
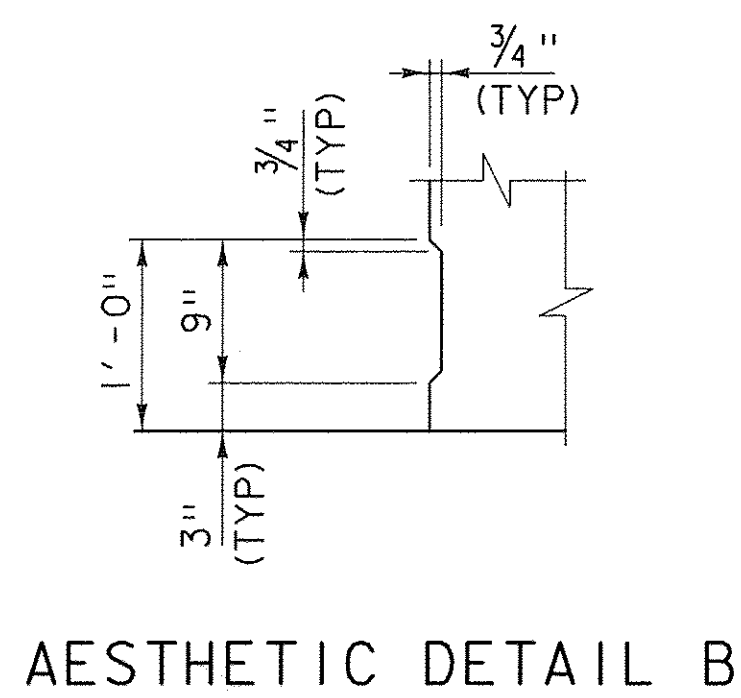
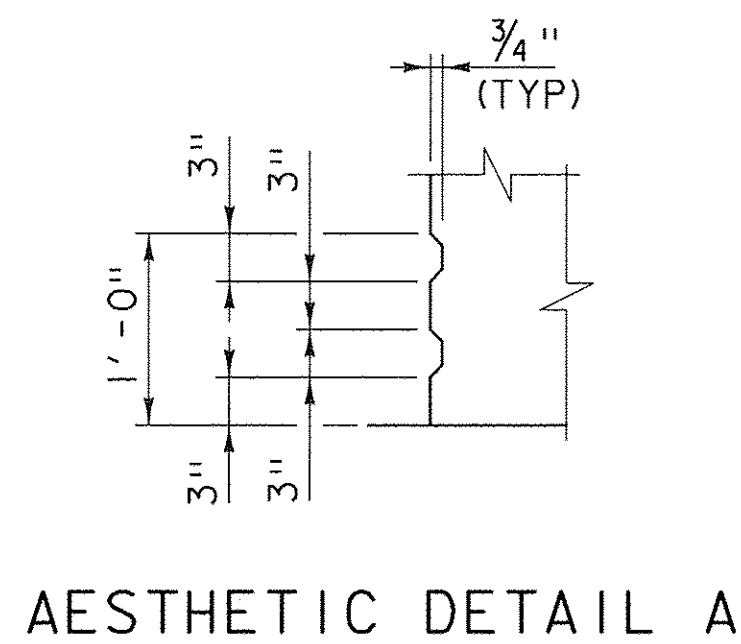
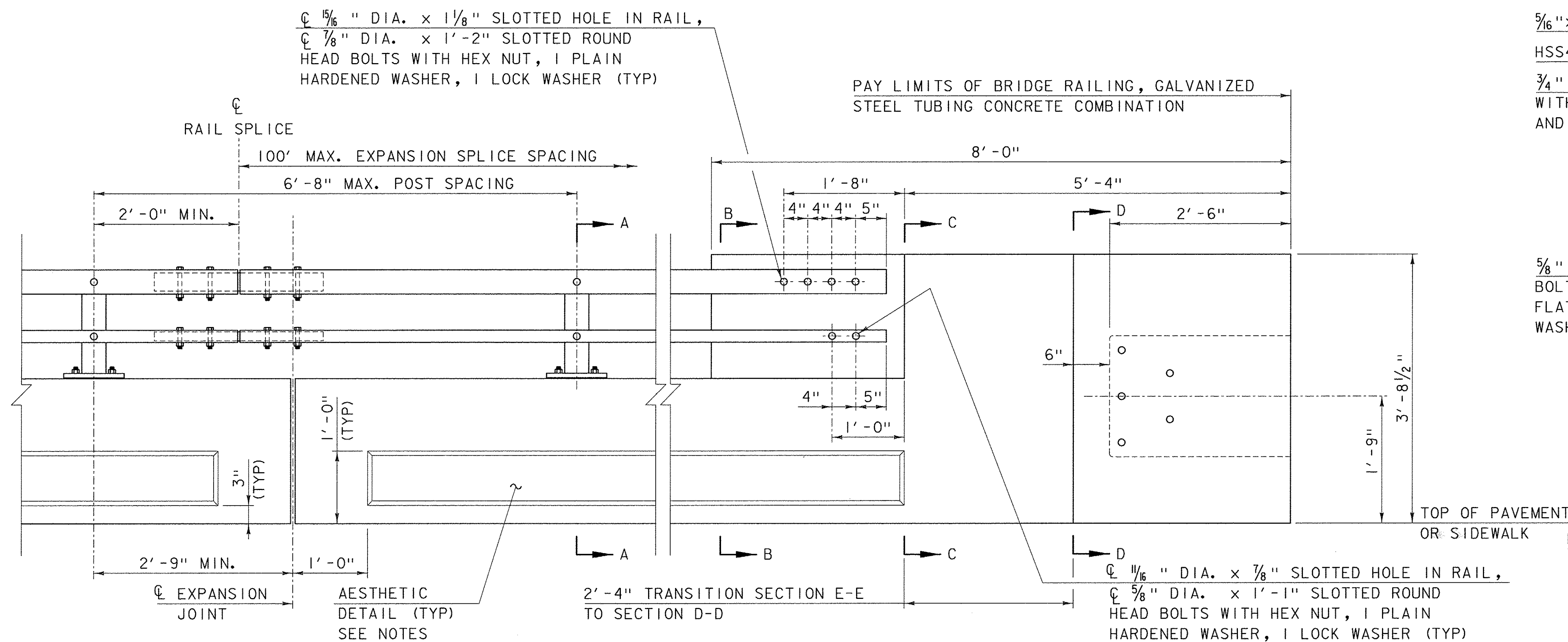
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267	Sikkens Cetol BL Primer cradle to gate data	Imperial College Life Cycle Assessment Group	2003	Akzo Nobel Specialist Coatings	
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- NOTES:
1. ALL WORK AND MATERIALS SHALL CONFORM TO SECTION 525.
  2. PRIOR TO GALVANIZING THE ASSEMBLED POST, GRIND ALL EDGES TO A MINIMUM RADIUS OF  $\frac{1}{16}$ ".
  3. ALL POSTS SHALL BE SET NORMAL TO GRADE.
  4. SECTIONS OF RAIL TUBE SHALL BE ATTACHED TO A MINIMUM OF TWO BRIDGE POSTS AND PREFERABLY TO AT LEAST 4 POSTS.
  5. HOLES IN RAILS FOR TUBE ATTACHMENT MAY BE FIELD-DRILLED. HOLES SHALL BE COATED WITH AN APPROVED ZINC-RICH PAINT PRIOR TO INSTALLATION.
  6. BOLTS SHALL BE TORQUED SNUG TIGHT (APPROXIMATELY 100 FT-LB).
  7. RAIL TUBES SHALL BE ATTACHED USING  $\frac{3}{4}$ " FULL DIAMETER BODY ASTM A 449 (TYPE I) ROUND HEAD BOLTS INSERTED THROUGH THE FACE OF THE TUBE.
  8. SEE STANDARD DRAWING G-1 FOR DETAILS OF DELINEATORS. A DELINEATOR SHALL BE INSTALLED AT 30 FOOT SPACING OR THE NEAREST POST. WHITE IS TO BE INSTALLED ON THE DRIVER'S RIGHT. FOR ONE WAY BRIDGES, YELLOW IS TO BE INSTALLED ON THE DRIVER'S LEFT. PAYMENT FOR DELINEATORS SHALL BE INCIDENTAL TO OTHER ITEMS.
  9. AESTHETIC TREATMENT TYPE SHALL BE APPLIED AS SPECIFIED IN THE CONTRACT PLANS. IF NONE IS SPECIFIED IT SHALL NOT BE USED. AESTHETIC TREATMENT DETAILED ON THIS SHEET MAY ALSO BE APPLIED ON THE FASCIA SIDE OF THE RAIL, IF SPECIFIED IN THE CONTRACT PLANS.
  10. BRIDGE RAILING SHALL HAVE A RUBBED FINISH IN ACCORDANCE WITH SECTION 501.
  11. THIS RAILING MEETS THE REQUIREMENTS FOR A NCHRP REPORT 350 TL-4 SERVICE LEVEL.

**OTHER STDS. REQUIRED: G-1**

<p>REVISIONS AND CORRECTIONS</p> <p>AUGUST 22, 2012 - ORIGINAL APPROVAL</p>
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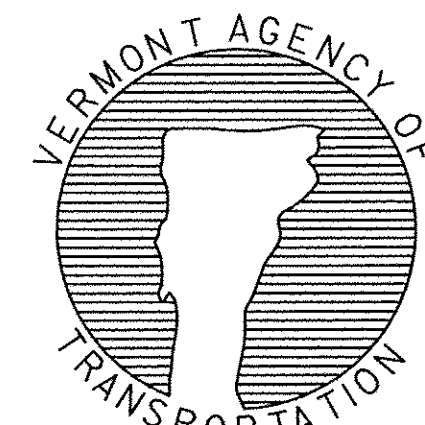
APPROVED

*Wm. Michael Hedgys*  
STRUCTURES ENGINEER

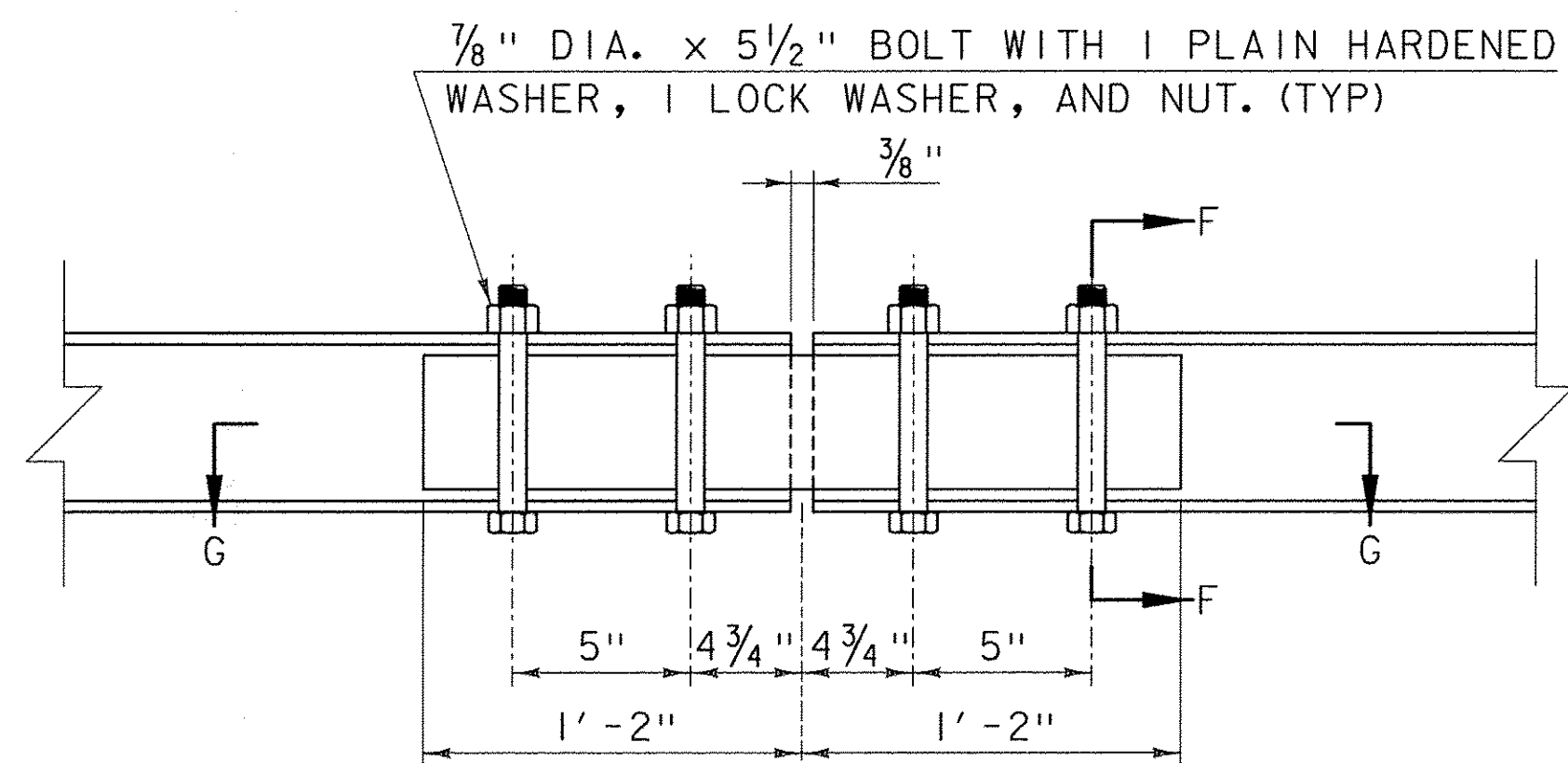
*Richard Peterson*  
DIRECTOR OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

*Mark D. Kistler*  
FEDERAL HIGHWAY ADMINISTRATION

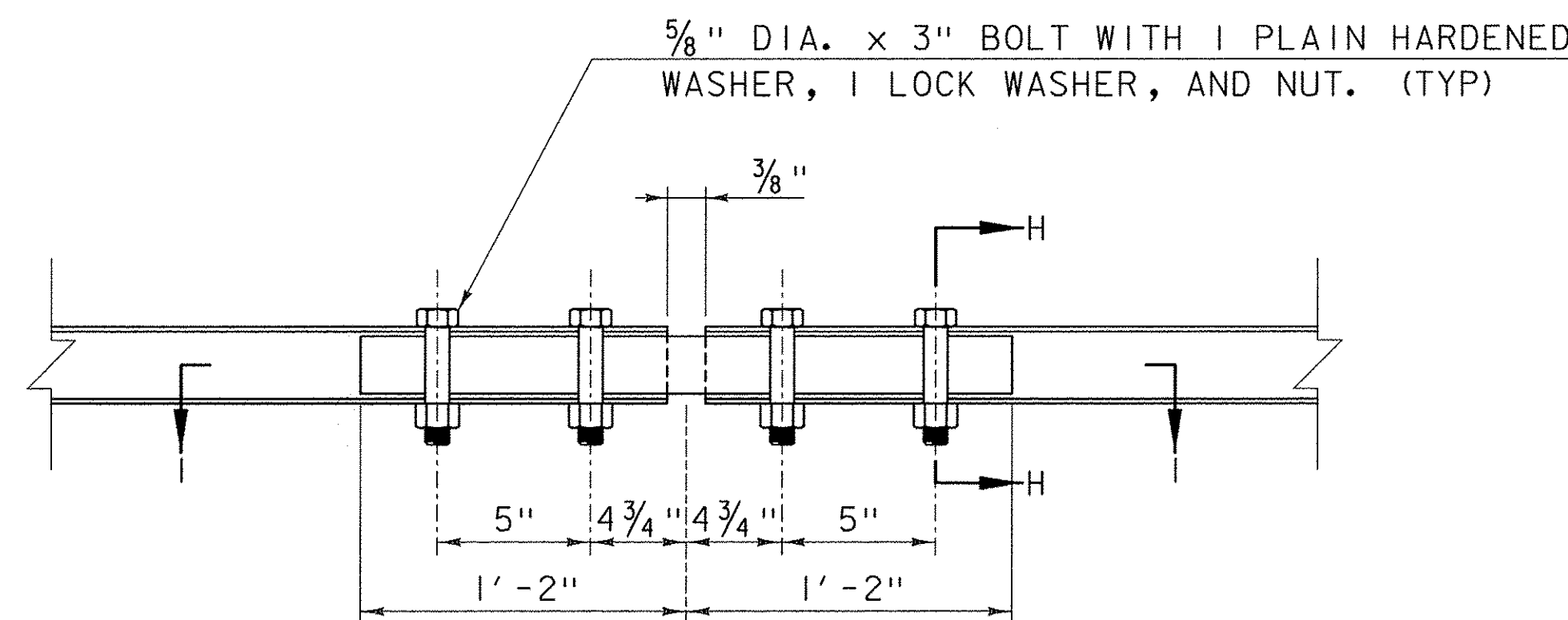
BRIDGE RAILING, GALVANIZED  
STEEL TUBING /  
CONCRETE COMBINATION



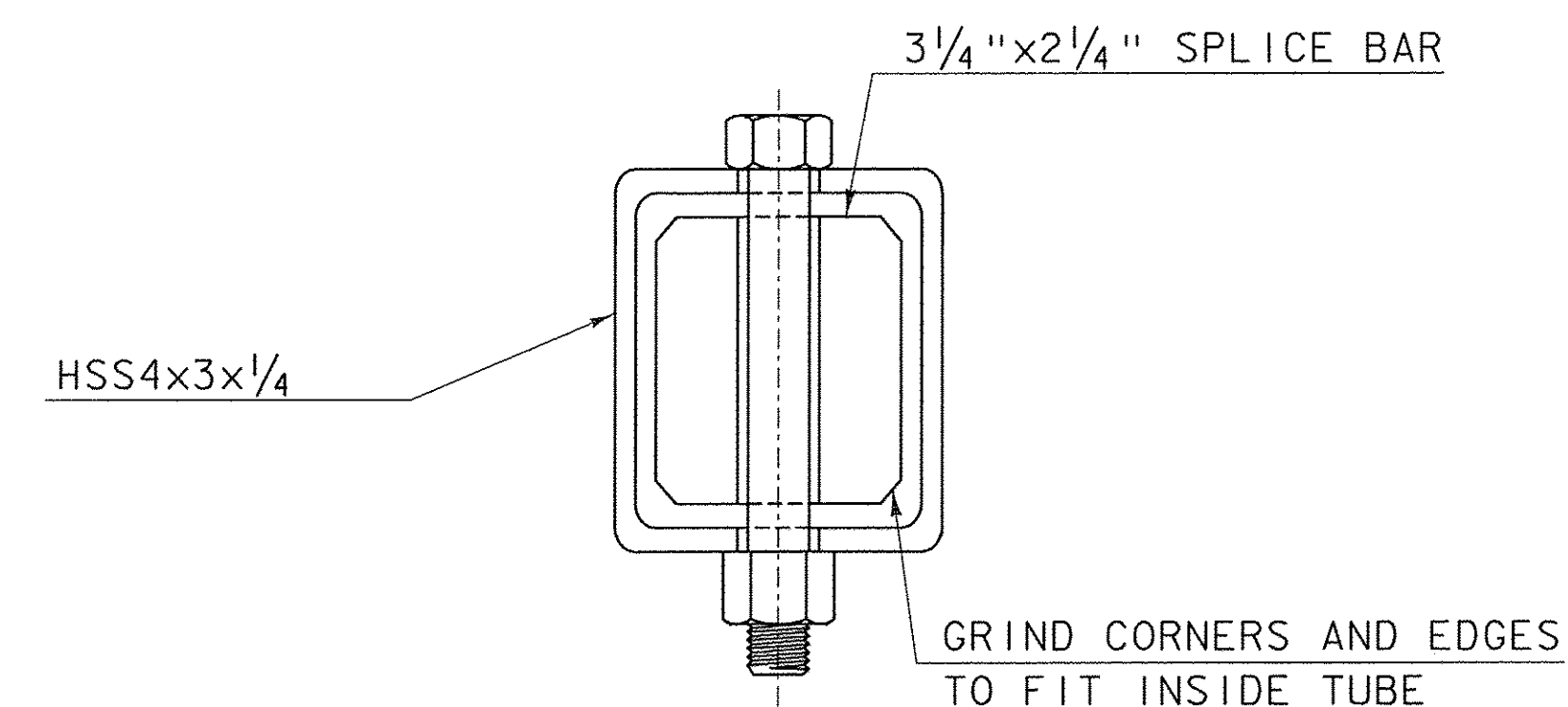
STANDARD  
S - 352A



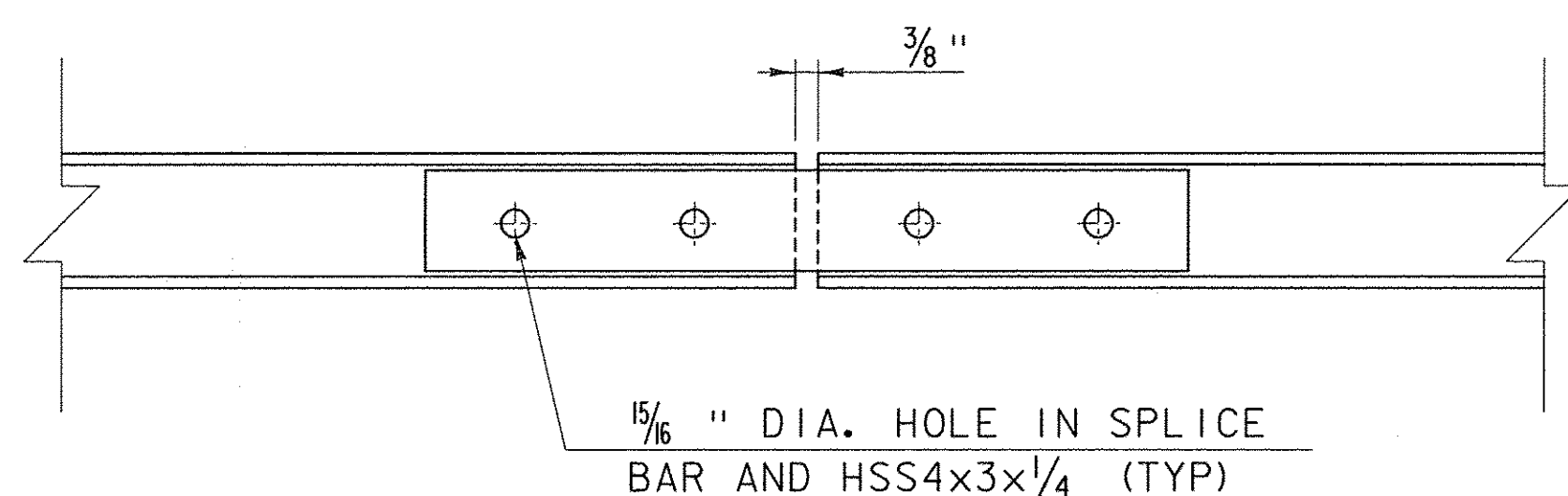
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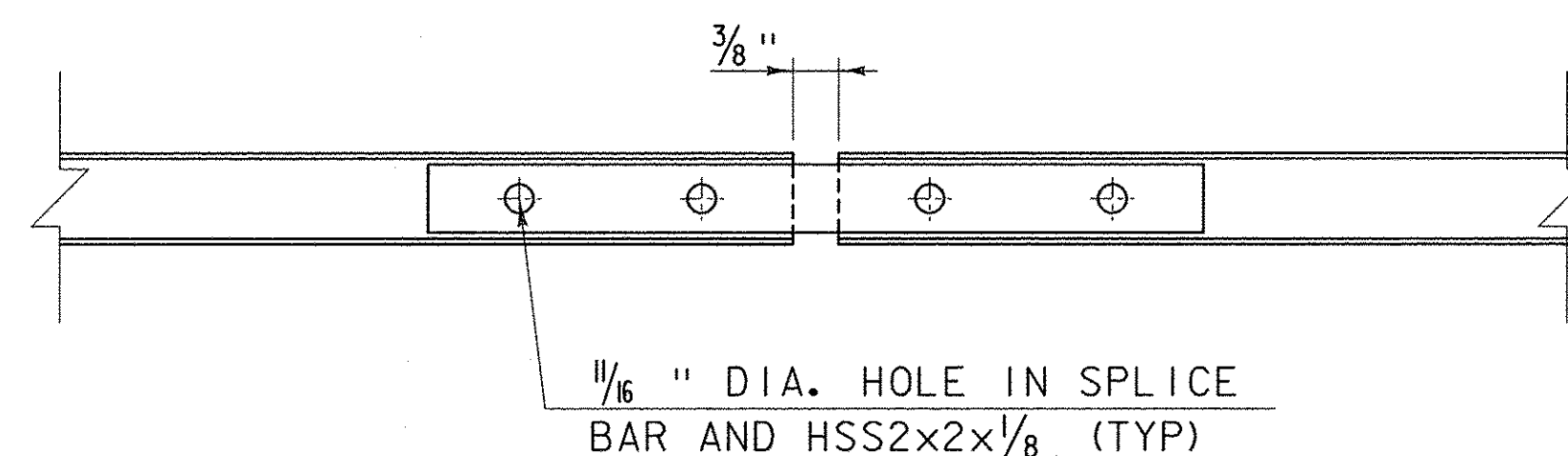
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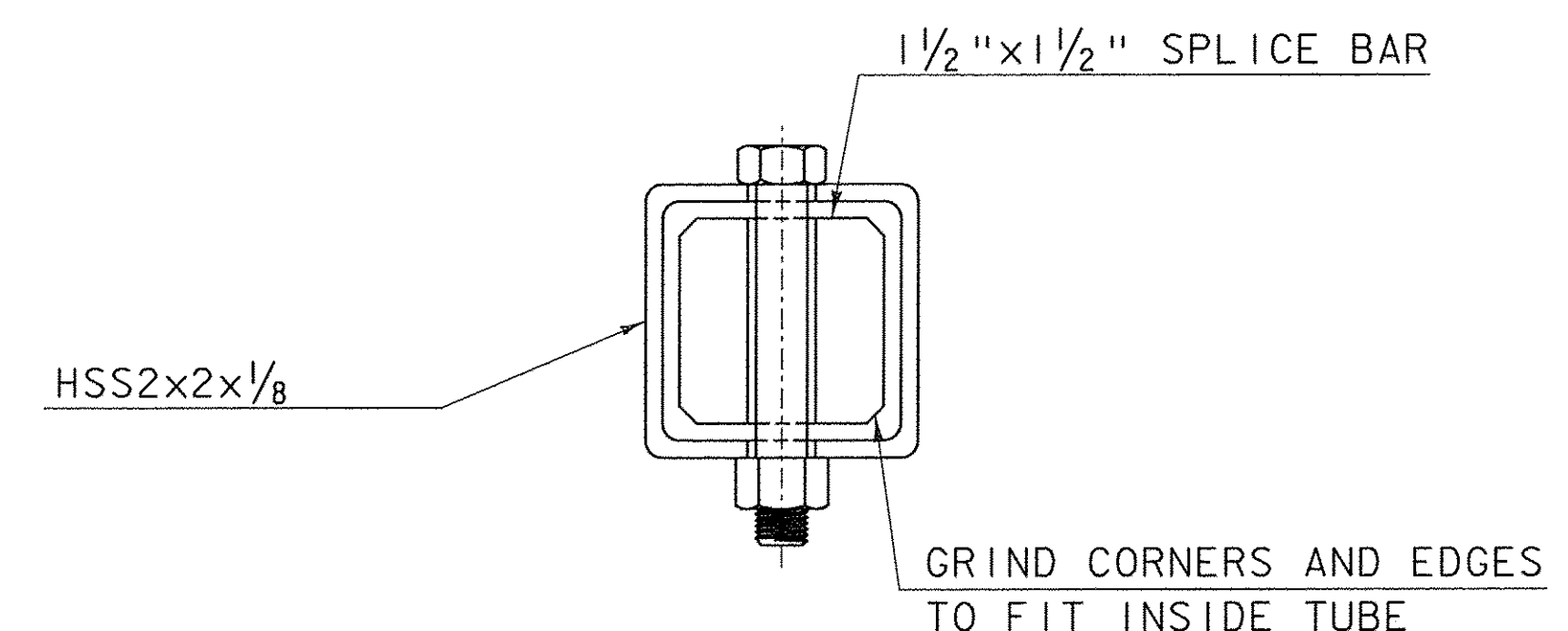
SECTION F-F



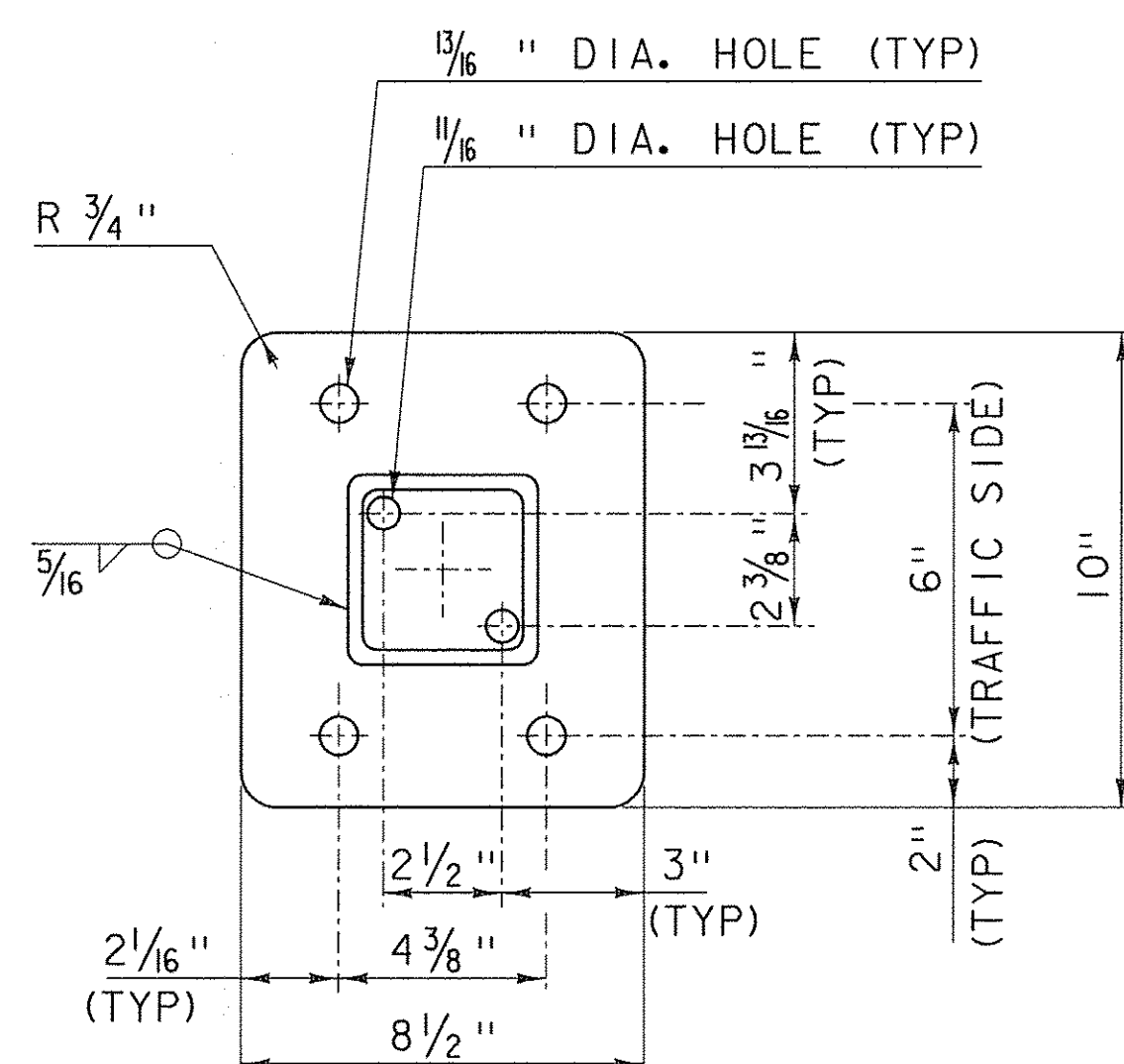
SECTION G-G



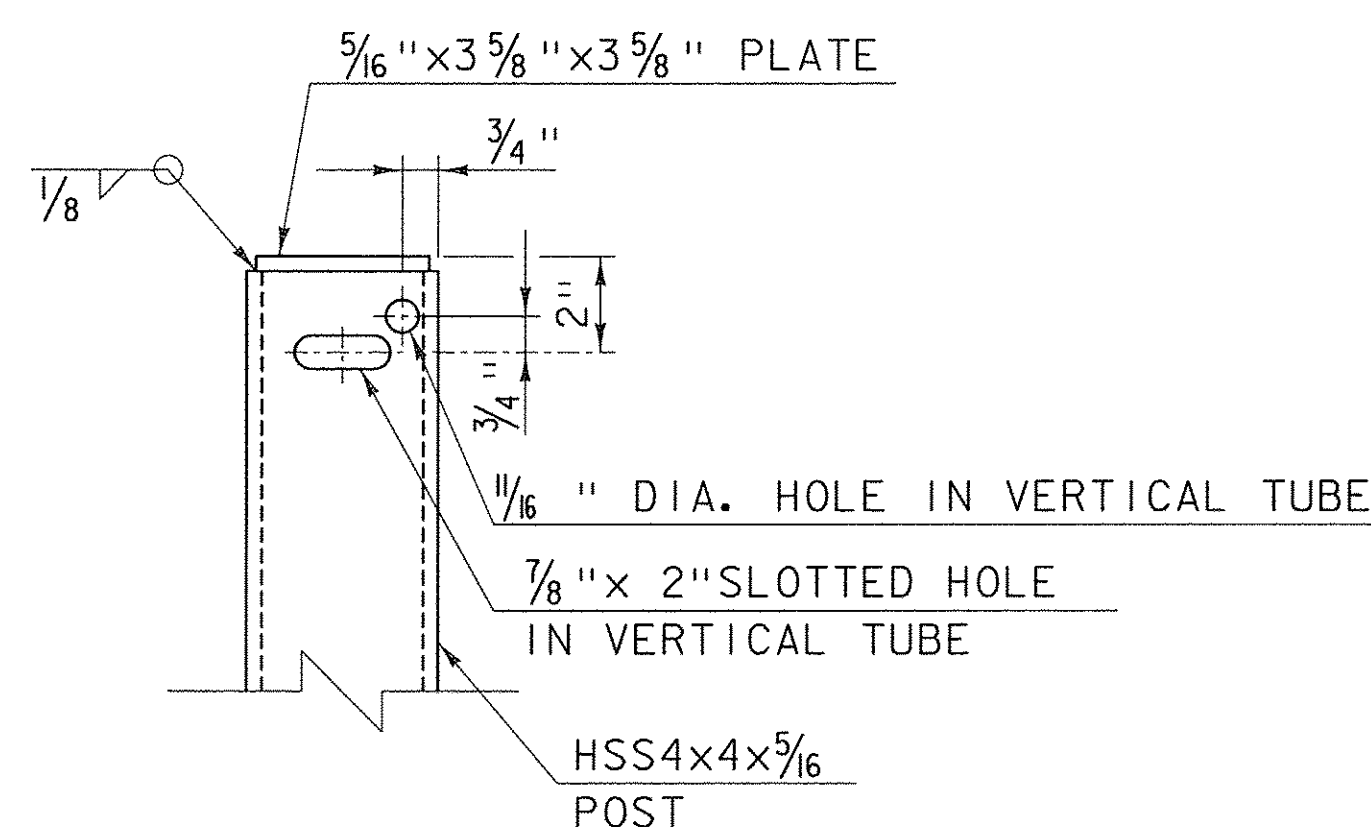
SECTION I-I



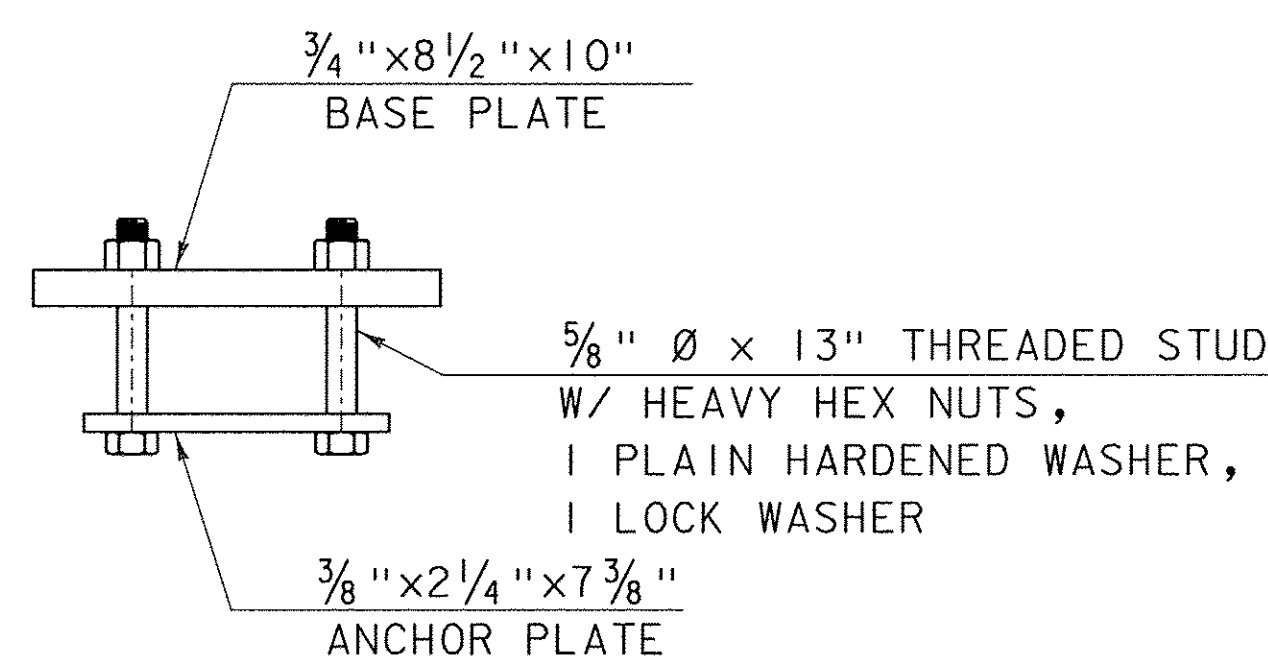
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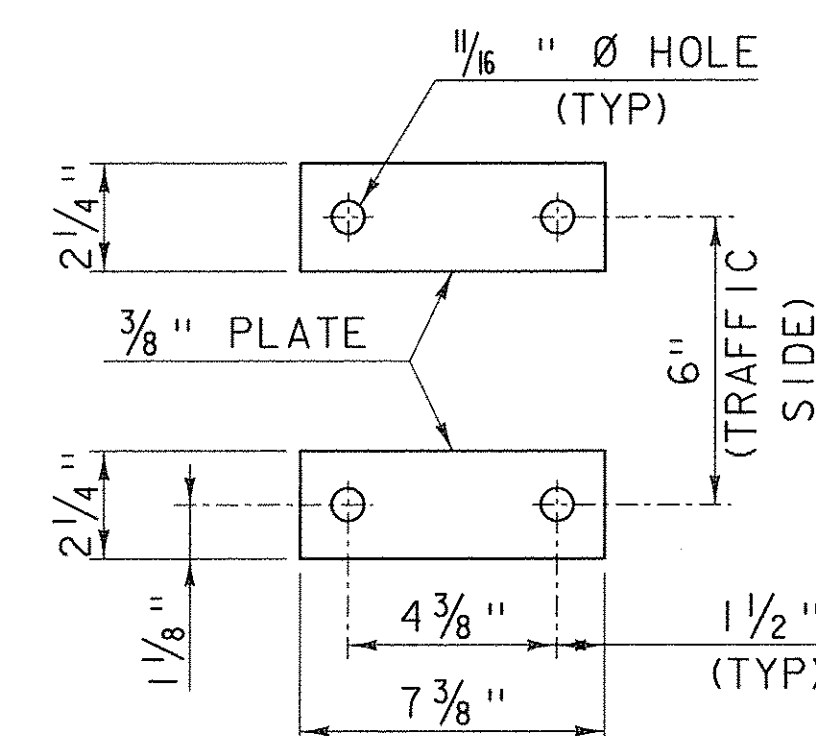
BASE PLATE



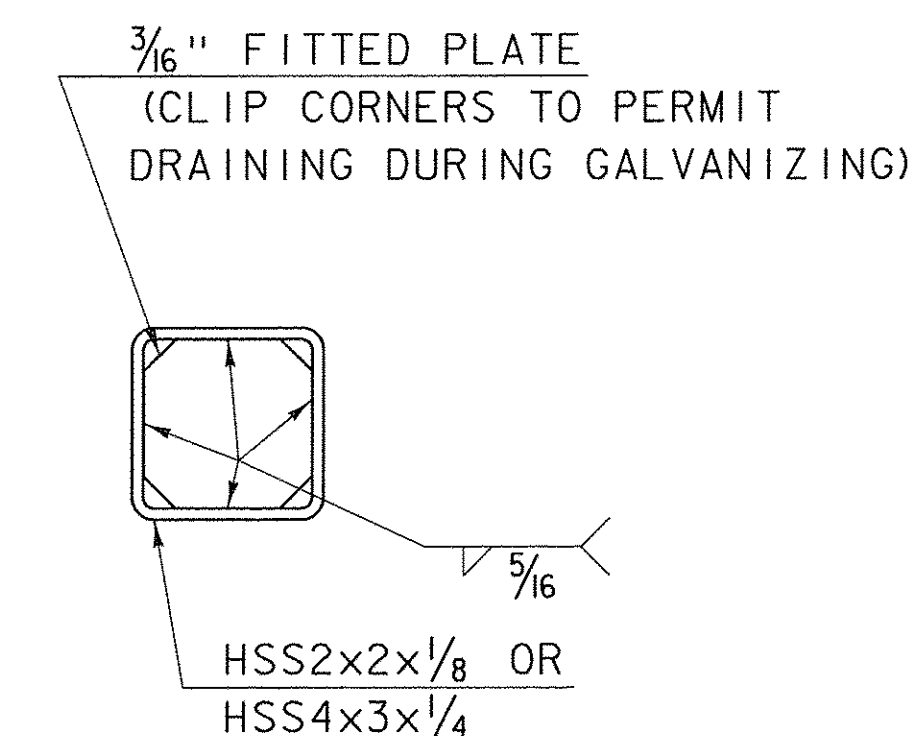
VERTICAL TUBE DETAIL  
(FRONT VIEW)



RAIL POST ANCHORAGE



ANCHOR PLATES



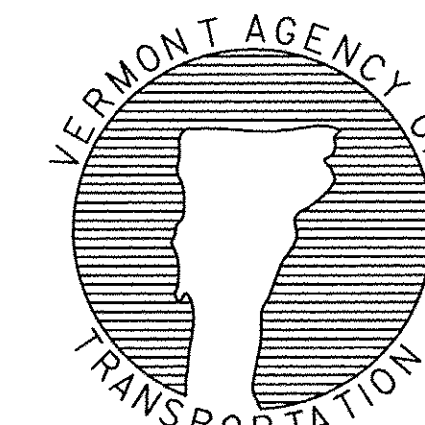
END OF RAIL DETAIL

REVISIONS AND CORRECTIONS  
AUGUST 22, 2012 - ORIGINAL APPROVAL

APPROVED  
*Wm. Michael Hedger*  
STRUCTURES ENGINEER  
*Richard Jettant*  
DIRECTOR OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT  
*Mark D. Richter*  
FEDERAL HIGHWAY ADMINISTRATION

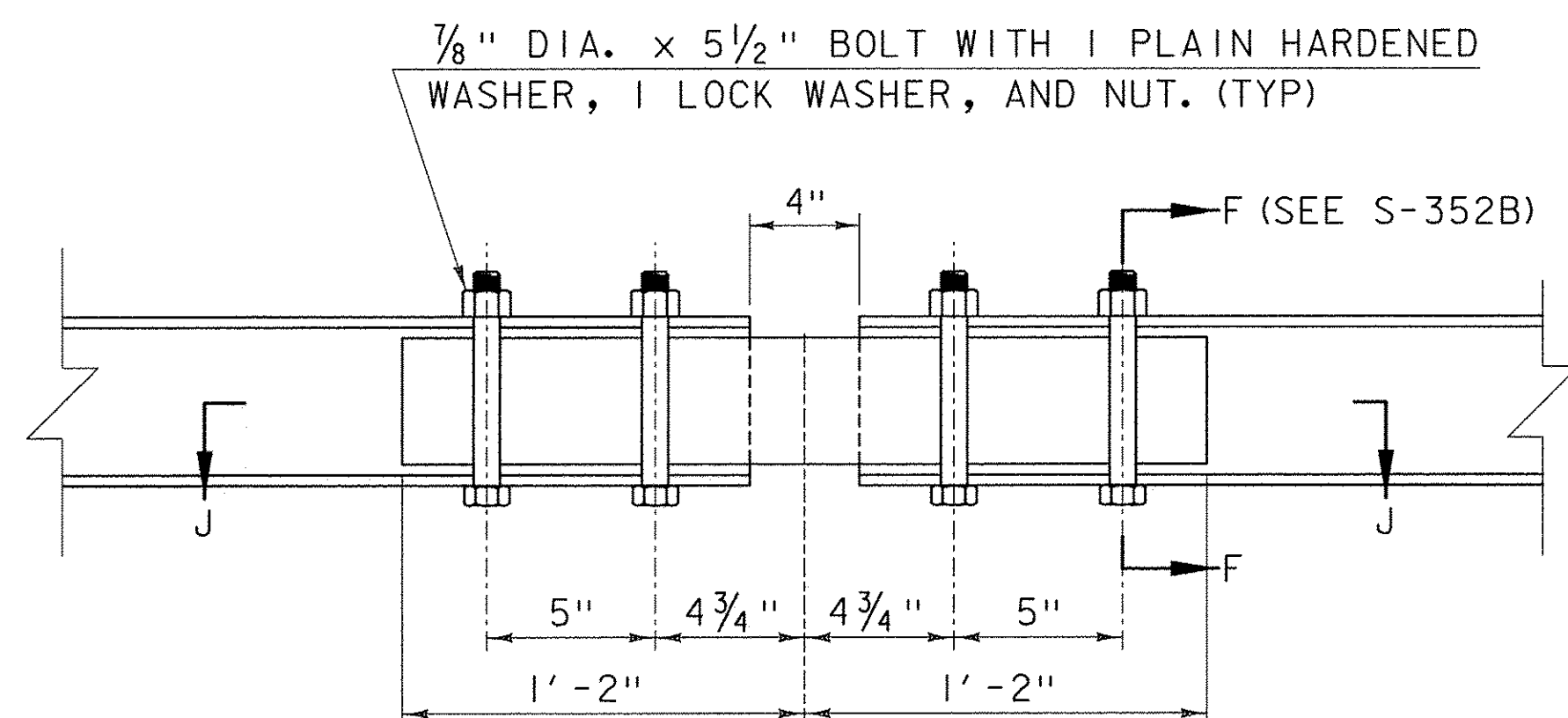
# BRIDGE RAILING, GALVANIZED STEEL TUBING / CONCRETE COMBINATION

OTHER STDS.  
REQUIRED: **G-1**

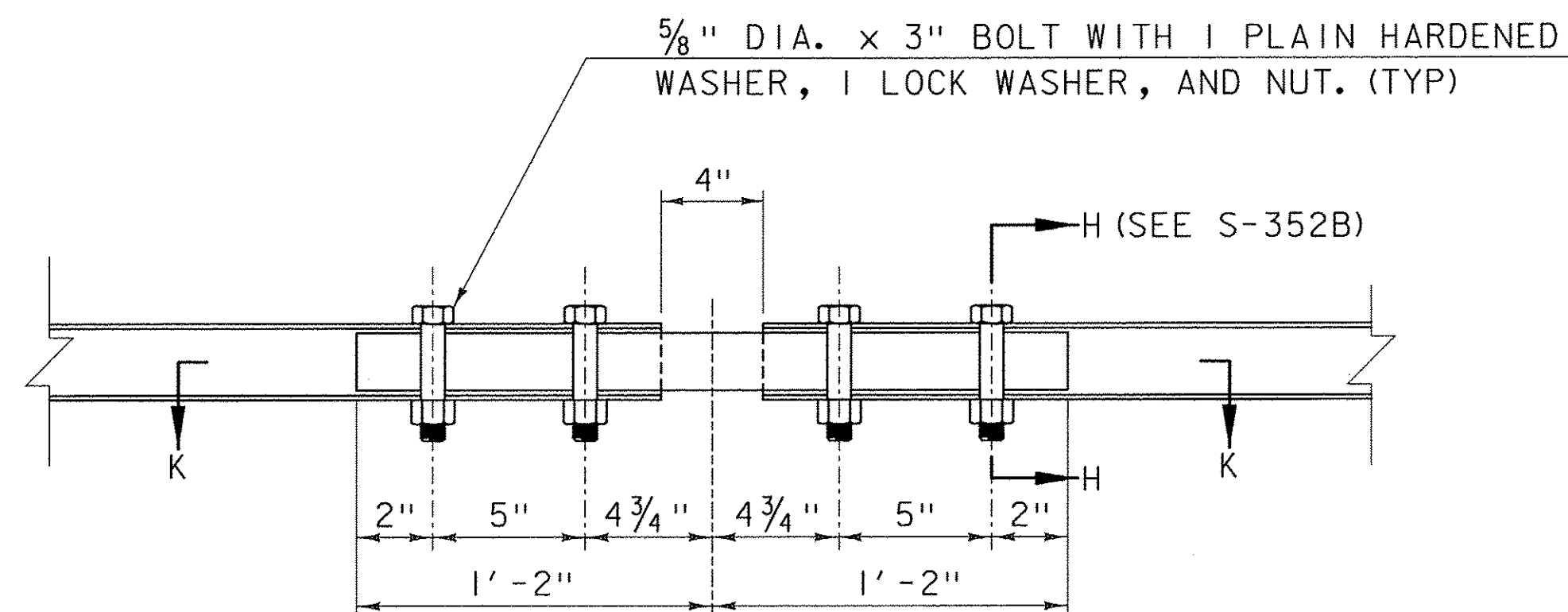


STANDARD  
S-352B

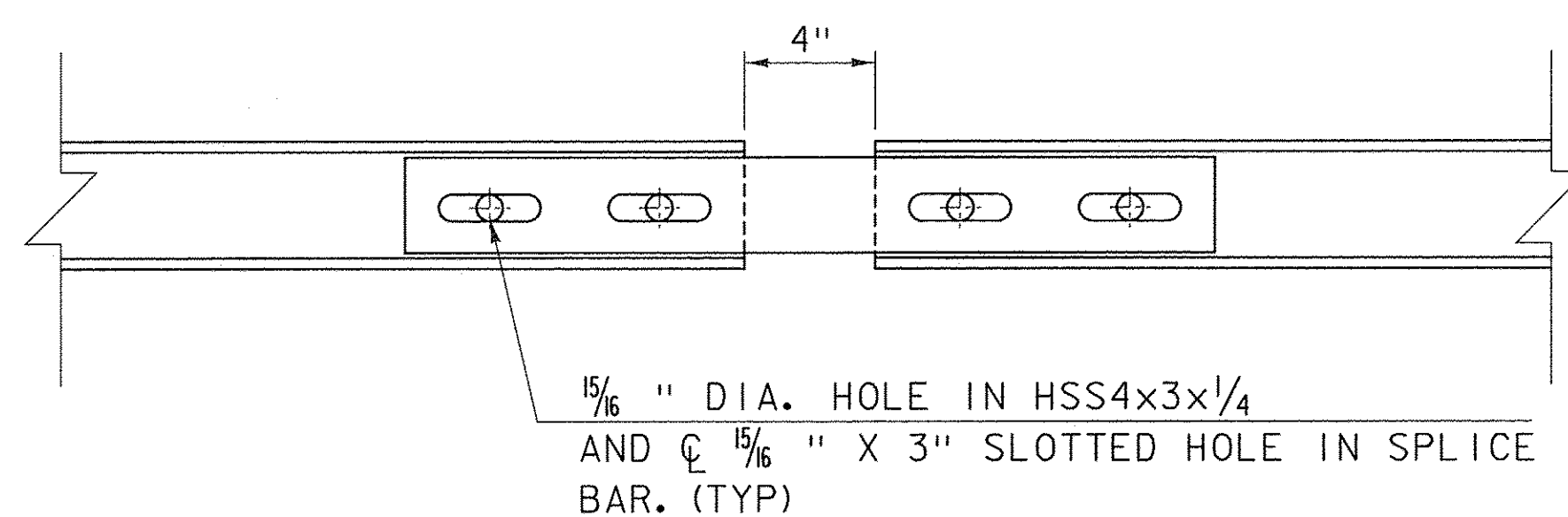




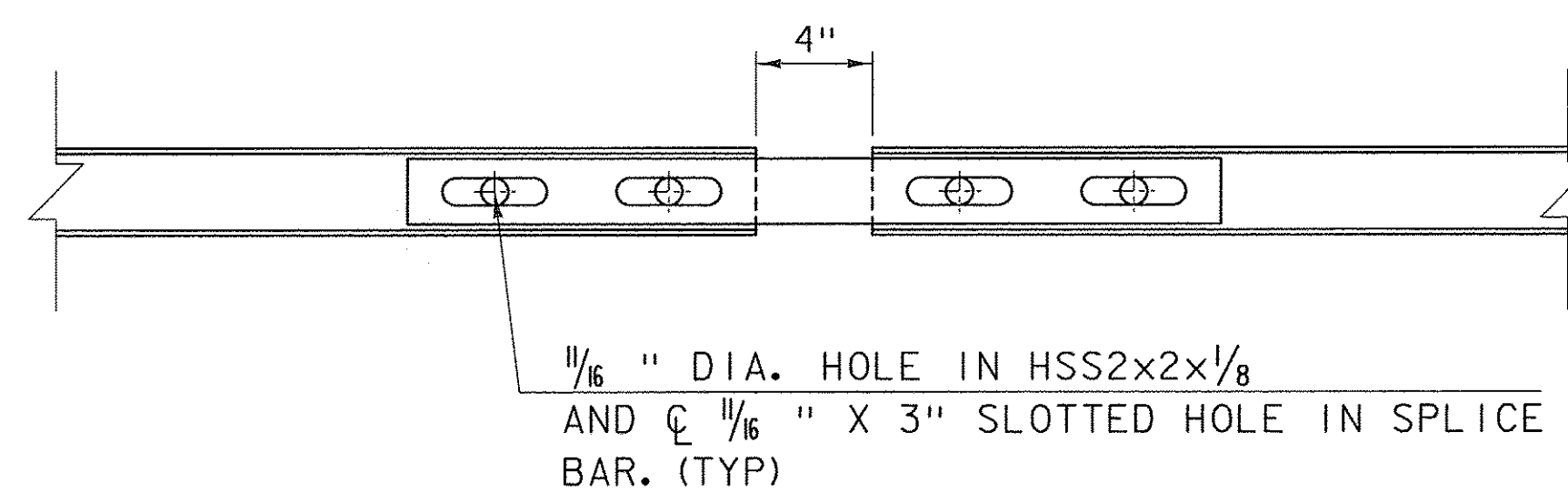
TOP RAIL EXPANSION SPLICE DETAIL



BOTTOM RAIL EXPANSION SPLICE DETAIL



SECTION J-J



SECTION K-K

REVISIONS AND CORRECTIONS

AUGUST 22, 2012 - ORIGINAL APPROVAL

APPROVED

*Don Michael Hedys*  
STRUCTURES ENGINEER

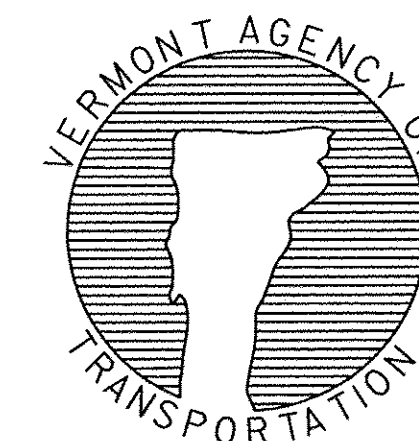
*Rita F. Stewart*  
DIRECTOR OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

*Mark D. Richter*  
FEDERAL HIGHWAY ADMINISTRATION

BRIDGE RAILING, GALVANIZED  
STEEL TUBING /  
CONCRETE COMBINATION

OTHER STDS.  
REQUIRED:

G-1



STANDARD  
S-352C